

THE

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Mary Queen of Scots Vindicated. By John Whitaker, B. D.
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Edinburgh.

THE age of chivalry is not wholly passed away: knight-errants sally out in pursuit of imaginary adventures; they dress up the object of their vows in the most glittering attire; adorn her with every merit and every virtue; then throw down the gauntlet in defence of an image which owes its decorations to their skill.—The amiable, the elegant dowager of France was little adapted by nature to the turbulent rule of a ferocious and uncivilised nation; yet, while chance offered to her assistance able and honest counsellors, and while Providence preserved them, her life was comparatively easy, and her reign happy. We have no reason, from any of the events of her life, to think her prudence was considerable, or her judgment accurate: in the early periods there are many reasons for a very different opinion, though she profited in the school of adversity by the severe lessons of her artful rival. Mary's person, formed to inspire love, her accomplishments, which even a rude age could feel and value, raised contending admirers in her prosperity, and commiserating friends in her adversity. From the machinations of these, rather than from actual guilt, she suffered in her life; and her memory has experienced the wounds of calumny since that time. Elizabeth was too eager to lose sight even of inadvertencies in her rival, and too earnest for her downfall to conceal them without animadversion: her courtiers magnified every little tale, and aspersed the memory of Mary, to justify, if possible, an act cruel, malicious, and perfidious.

So little was the bishop of Ross's Vindication regarded, that the tide rolled on with undiminished force, till it was checked in 1754, by Mr. Goodall; whose efforts were assisted by Mr. Tytler. Afterwards Dr. Stuart, in the first instance; and Mr. Whitaker, in the present Volumes, attempted to turn the torrent in an opposite direction. Many manuscript ma-

terials are still to be found in different collections; for the friends of Mary who survived her were numerous, though the power of Elizabeth prevented their speaking openly or loudly. We could have wished that Mr. Whitaker's zeal had led him to these repositories, instead of again dishing up the crambé recocta of his predecessor; instead of dilating, amplifying, and adding to suppositions and difficulties, which, at this distance, must involve the questions in obscurity, without a possibility of being able to elucidate them.

After a very mature consideration of all the arguments, we own that, in our eyes, Mary appears not to have been criminal; and we believe the letters are in reality the forgeries of her enemies. She was innocent of the murder of Darnley, though his conduct could not lead her to respect his memory, or greatly to regret the loss she had sustained. She was captivated by Henry's person: his picture remains; and it represents a tall, robust, but an awkward and ungainly young man. His face is not animated by a soul either of spirit or sensibility; and, consistently with this appearance, his conduct seems to have been mean, trifling, wavering, and silly. Bothwell is said to have recommended himself to her notice by his intrepidity: if Mary was not privy to his design of carrying her off, and there is no very decisive reason to believe that she was, we cannot, while we reflect on her situation, and the state of society at that time, blame her for her subsequent conduct, though she had remained free from the violation which Mr. Whitaker contends that she had experienced. Yet, with all Bothwell's turbulence and spirit, we cannot suppose that he would have proceeded so far with his sovereign, if, from Mary's indiscretion, he had not known that he had a powerful advocate in her heart. This reasoning, however, proceeds on the supposition that the letters and the contract are forgeries; and, to prove that they are so, is the object of Mr. Whitaker's three large volumes.

We shall not examine these volumes minutely: the profusion of words; the repetition of arguments; and reasoning sometimes the most trifling, deter us from it. It is Mr. Whitaker's opinion that Mary was innocent. With that view, every thing like an argument, every thing like a reason, both good and bad, are accumulated. It is not enough that his heroine is not guilty; but she must be the wisest, the best of queens, and of women. With an amiable heart, and with strict integrity, she indeed shines when placed near her insidious relation; and if we speak of her as an elegant woman, in a rude age, we may allow gallantry to expatiate largely in her praise. A severe historian must be more exact.

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We suspected Mr. Whitaker, even in the beginning of the first volume : the picture was too flattering to be a correct drawing. Her eloquence is spoken of repeatedly from Camden's Annals ; and the original of this word is ' suada.' It is not eloquence, it is persuasion ; and they must have been more, or less than men, who could not be persuaded by the arguments and tears of an elegant woman, of a woman in distress, persecuted and oppressed. The language of those who conversed with Mary must be rigorously examined. It is not the only instance of our author's mistranslation, though it is so trifling a one that we should not have noticed it, if some of his arguments had not been of the philological kind. The Prêtres fortunés of Boileau are styled the ' happy priests :' it is true, the word may be translated *happy* ; but their luck, not their felicity, is the subject of the poet's satire. These little circumstances must have their weight in the arguments drawn from the internal evidence of letters no longer in existence, of which only imperfect and inaccurate translations remain. Our author's arguments by no means show that they were not written originally in French.

We need not dwell on the historian's contradiction of himself, in the character of Mary. After the most profuse commendations of her judgment and prudence, he allows that she did not hold the reins of government with firmness, that she was guilty occasionally of 'great folly,' and of numerous indiscretions.

In the examination of the letters Mr. Whitaker reasons with greater strictness and acuteness. He remarks, at length, how the first rumour of letters intercepted grew gradually to the alarming magnitude of written records ; that the time when they were said to be intercepted renders the whole doubtful, because, from various circumstances, it was impossible that they could then have been seized ; that extracts were circulated before the letters were seen ; that the originals were never examined by impartial witnesses, or compared with Mary's own writing, but by the designing Elizabeth ; that the reputed substance of the letters when they were first seized, was very different from what appeared in them when the pretended originals were produced. In short, every part of the transaction when nicely sifted, showed, in his opinion, that the framers of the plot had not determined in what manner to carry it on. At this distance much must undoubtedly remain in obscurity ; nor is it to be expected that we can account for the conduct, which, if we for a moment suppose the letters genuine, would be proper for a regent to pursue, when his queen was suspect-

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ed; or the guardian of a son, when the mother was attacked in the severest manner. Yet there was an evident endeavour, even in those to whom Mary's fame was not of consequence, to avoid enquiry. A fair comparison was never made, the accounts of different witnesses very evidently, in our opinion, relate to different sets of letters; and the leaders of the faction were known to be able to counterfeit her hand. The letters too,—letters of the greatest importance, are sent without even a seal. We shall add a specimen of our author's reasoning, who could not have been more explicit if he had been the confidant of Lethington.

The first time that the idea of a set of forged letters was suggested to the rebels, was on the 24th of July, 1567. It was pretty certainly a spark struck off from the mind of Lethington, by the friendly collision of the ideas of adultery and murder, then floating among the mob of clergy and gentry in Edinburgh, and his own habits of forging the hand-writing of Mary. These habits are sufficiently attested by his own confession; as he acknowledged in secret to the commissioners at York, that he had frequently forged her writing. His active hand, therefore, caught the spark as it flew, threw in the combustibles, which his active genius could always furnish, and fanned both immediately into a little flame. He is expressly said by the rebels themselves, to have been “esteemed by them as one of the best engines or spirits of his country.” He is particularly reported to have had “a crafty head and fell [or sharp] tongue.” Elizabeth also is declared by her own ambassadour, to have known him well “for his wisdom to conceive, and his wit to convey, whatsoever his mind is bent unto to bring it to pass.” And he is described by another cotemporary, to have been “naturally inclined to plotting and intriguing, and fond of encountering difficulties, as tools that served to sharpen his wit, of which he had a very great stock.” He instantly conceived the plan of a series of letters, fabricated in a writing similar to Mary's, and proving all that the mob asserted, in order to terrify Mary into the wanted resignation. He instantly connected it with its proper accompaniments. His mind had always a quickness of invention, and a vigour of formation about it. And his tongue, which was as lively as his fancy, instantly reported the whole for a system already in existence, to Throgmorton; to whose lodgings he frequently repaired, and in whose ear he frequently pretended to whisper the secret designs of the party. He was, no doubt, the principal channel of intelligence to Throgmorton on all occasions. He was the only channel upon this. Had the project of the letters been known to any except the relater and the reporter, it must soon have crept out among the busy partizans in the city, and appeared in some of Throgmorton's intelligences concerning them. Such a pretended

tended discovery, if it had once gone out beyond the two, would not long have crept. It would soon have raised itself upon its feet. It would soon have stalked forth in gigantic formidableness, among the amazed crowds. And it was privately intimated to Throgmorton only, that he might act in conjunction with Lethington and his four associates in treachery; that he might write like them to Mary, upon the dangers that were pressing upon her from every side; and that so he might unite to drive the poor doe, which they could not hunt down, into the toils prepared for her.'

So rapidly run our author's ideas, and so plausible is his relation: yet this very able, this quick convenient engine forged, if the other parts of Mr. Whitaker's suspicion be true, the letters, so awkwardly and imperfectly, that two or three editions were necessary before they were fit to meet the public eye: the dullest tool of the most uninformed party could not have succeeded worse.

The variations with respect to the number of letters, the sonnets, &c, at some times said to be found with them, while at other times letters only seem to be spoken of, are arguments of little importance, unless it be proved necessary to speak in common of such things in the style of a lease, and to repeat, on every occasion, executors, administrators, and assigns, as well as barns, stables, and out-houses. There is one fact which appears to us very strong: the clerk of the privy council mentions the letters as written and *subscribed* by her own hand. It is impossible to account for the introduction of the last word, unless the letters there produced had been subscribed. The real letters had no signature, and we cannot avoid joining Mr. Whitaker in his suspicion, that though they could forge the hand of Mary, they could not imitate her seal. Of course unsealed letters, on such subjects, could not properly have a signature; and such letters must be consequently obscure and illusive. We are aware of Mr. Hume's answer to this point; and though we allow his arguments to have great weight, and that they are not sufficiently considered by Mr. Whitaker, yet, in this instance, from the language of the report it is impossible to apply the subscription to the contract.

We have, in this article, chiefly given a specimen of our author's manner, with some remarks on the management of the controversy; and we have selected rather those parts which are subservient to this design, than those in which he has materially elucidated the question. The latter are, indeed, found with much difficulty. He has amplified hints, and has extended the sentences of others to whole pages. From this error, and a want of a pointed and comprehensive view of the

argument, the impression left on the mind is weak. We lose sight of Mary, and see only a tiresome advocate.

It is a little remarkable, that if the conduct of the Regency was so varying; if their description of the letters was so frequently changed, that the Duke of Norfolk had not detected the imposition. He was a commissioner at York, and at Westminster; he was a member of the privy council: and yet these letters at different places seem to have assumed different shapes. From his trial it appeared that he considered them as genuine: in the conferences with the bishop of Ross, no doubt of their authenticity appears to have been expressed. This fact should certainly be accounted for better than it has been; though every one who has examined every part of the subject will be induced to think Mary less guilty than she has been generally supposed,

The second Volume contains critical remarks on the letters, and the internal evidence of the forgery. It is tedious, dry, and disgusting. It proves, we think, pretty plainly, though our author contends for a different opinion, that the original, as Hume supposed, is lost; and that the Latin and the French are retranslations from the Scotch version. The argument, in which Mr. Whitaker is most successful, is that which relates to the anachronisms.

The third Volume commences with accounts of some other forgeries, in order to show that it was not an uncommon crime in those times, nor peculiar to Lethington. Mr. Whitaker supposes too, that the letters sent as from Mary to Elizabeth were the production of this deceitful secretary; that the forgery of the letters to Bothwell might be compared with the forgeries of the same hand in letters to Elizabeth. Indeed, Mr. Whitaker's mind is so full of forgeries, that he will hardly allow of the existence of any public instrument of that æra, without interpolations. Criticisms on the Sonnets follow; and they are as uninteresting as the critical remarks on the Letters. After a remark on some observations of Lord Hales, he returns to the Sonnets, and endeavours to prove them incompatible with history, and with each other. The Contracts next share Mr. Whitaker's attention: one of these he allows to be genuine, and the two others to be forgeries, framed in order to depreciate the character of Mary, by leading the reader to suppose that they were made before the murder of the king.

Mr. Whitaker next examines the circumstances of the murder of Darnley; and is so very minute, that if he had attended the conspirators in every movement, he could not have been more accurately informed of their designs. Murray,

Lethington, and Bothwell were, in his opinion, the chief contrivers of the murder; and it was executed by their servants, or assassins hired by them.

The Appendix contains some original papers, with remarks on the forgeries and interpolations which occur in them. Mr. Whitaker thinks that Buchanan repented of his flanders against Queen Mary: but his opinion rests on uncertain evidence; and Thuanus, if indeed he was the author of *Thuanus Restitutus*, published at Amsterdam, gives a very different account.

We must now take our leave of Mr. Whitaker, whom we can commend only for his good designs. If the little that he has added to the labours of Goodall, Tytler, and Stuart, had been compressed into one half of one volume, it might have been of service to the cause he has espoused.

Additions and Corrections to the former Editions of Dr. Robertson's History of Scotland. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

THESE Additions and Corrections are inserted in their respective places, in the eleventh edition of Dr. Robertson's History; but are likewise published separately, for the convenience of those who have purchased the former editions. We cannot better inform our readers of the author's conduct, in the execution of these amendments, than by presenting them with the Preface to the edition above mentioned.

' It is now twenty-eight years since I published the History of Scotland. During that time I have been favoured by my friends with several remarks upon it; and various strictures have been made by persons who entertained sentiments different from mine, with respect to the transactions in the reign of queen Mary. From whatever quarter information came, in whatever mode it has been communicated, I have considered it calmly, and with attention. Wherever I perceived that I had erred, either in relating events, or in delineating characters, I have, without hesitation, corrected those errors. Wherever I am satisfied that my original ideas were just and well-founded, I adhere to them; and, resting upon their conformity to evidence already produced, I enter into no discussion or controversy in order to support them. Wherever the opportunity of consulting original papers, either in print or in manuscript, to which I had not formerly access, has enabled me to throw new light upon any part of the history, I have made alterations and additions, which, I flatter myself, will be found to be of some importance.'

In our preceding article we own that our opinion was formed from the general force of all the arguments; and if it were

not, it would not be suitable to our plan to engage particularly in defence of the unfortunate queen. The arguments adduced in the pamphlet are very striking: and Dr. Robertson urges the opinion of the duke of Norfolk, with great force. It is an argument which it is difficult to elude. We shall select it as a specimen of the author's mildness in this controversy, after so much illiberality has been displayed by some of his antagonists.

' Nor did Norfolk declare these to be his sentiments only in public official letters, he expressed himself in the same manner to his most confidential friends. In a secret conference with the bishop of Ross at York, the duke informed him that he had seen the letters, &c. which the regent had to produce against the queen, whereby there would be such matter proved against her, as would dishonour her for ever. State Trials, edition of Hargrave, i. 91. Murdin, 52. The bishop of Ross, if he had known the letters to be a notorious forgery, must have been naturally led, in consequence of this declaration, to undeceive the duke, and to expose the imposture. But, instead of this, the duke and he and Lethington, after consulting together, agreed, that the bishop should write to Mary, then at Bolton, and instruct her to make such a proposal to Elizabeth as might prevent the public production of the letters and other evidence, State Trials, i. 94. Murdin, 45. Indeed, the whole of this secret conference seems to imply, that Lethington, Ross, and Norfolk, were conscious of some defect in Mary's cause, and therefore exerted all their ingenuity in order to avoid a public accusation. Murdin, 52, 53. To Banister, whom the duke seems to have trusted more entirely than any other of his servants, he expressed himself in similar terms with respect to the queen of Scots. State Trials, i. 98. The words of Banister's evidence are remarkable: "I confess that I, waiting of my lord and master, when the Earl of Sussex and Mr. Chancellor of the dutchy that now is, were in commission at York, did hear his grace say, that upon examination of the matter of the murder, it did appear that the Queen of Scots was guilty and privy to the murder of lord Darnly, whereby I verily thought that his grace would never join in marriage with her." Murdin, 134. Elizabeth, in her instructions to the Earl of Shrewsbury and Beale in 1583, asserts, that both the duke and earl of Arundel did declare to herself, that the proof, by the view of her letters, did fall out sufficient against the queen of Scots; however they were after drawn to cover her faults and pronounce her innocency.'

Winter Evenings; or Lucubrations on Life and Letters. 12mo,
3 Vols. 9s. in Boards. Dilly.

IN the dreary moments of winter we receive an entertaining companion with pleasure: we stir the fire, and snuff the

the candles ; look around with calm complacency, while the burst of elements rages around us ; and, in our own little circle, at least, feel no storm. The author of these Lucubrations has cheered the moments of solitude by his own remarks ; and, by bringing a few old,—a few almost forgotten companions with him, has renewed the pleasing recollection of former days. His subjects are too numerous to be even transitorily described ; and in each, he displays much learning and information. His language is always neat ; and, if we except a few anomalies, we dare not call them errors, very correct. His taste, formed on the purest classic models, is accurate and refined ;—his piety is rational, and his morality unstained.

But we must stop our career of commendation ; we can proceed no farther ; for justice requires we should reverse the tablet ; our impartiality will not permit us to close the account in the favourable strain we could have wished to have continued. If the reader of these volumes looks for information which other works do not contain ; if he despairs sometimes to pursue reflections that at once suggest themselves on the slightest consideration, he will be disappointed. There is no idea so hackneyed on any subject which occurs among the titles of these Essays, that may not occasionally be found in them ; there is no quotation so trite, that our author will not transcribe. He has defended the practice of quoting from the Latin poets, by just arguments ; but we think they only prove that citations are admissible when either a new or an apposite remark occurs in authors of antiquity ; when a common subject is adorned by a peculiar, a ‘curious felicity’ of expression. In every other circumstance, they have the effect of proverbs in conversation, which are not supposed to add to the elegance of discourse.

From retirement, probably, our author has become fastidious : on the subjects of newspapers and the theatre, he is occasionally uncandid, and frequently too severe. His style is too little varied to render a succession of essays pleasing ; and the Letters, supposed to be written by correspondents, are languid and uniform. If he had not hinted at their being his own productions, they would soon have betrayed their author.

If, however, we wish for a companion who will not fatigue the mind, perhaps already wearied by complex investigation ; who will innocently, and sometimes profitably, draw it to subjects where, though no novelty occurs, the sentiments of others are decorated in pleasing language ; who preserves the strictest propriety, and the nicest decorum, our author may be selected without danger of disappointment. If he only reflects images we have already seen, or transcribes from authors whom we have formerly read, he may assist the mind, by contributing

to preserve the evanescent vestiges, or reviving the pleasure which was once felt with the keener zest of novelty. On both these accounts we owe him some obligations ; and he seems to aim at no more.

We shall select a few specimens of this writer's manner, and shall endeavour to choose passages of different kinds, which shall illustrate, so far as our limits will admit, our preceding observations.

' I read Xenophon's *Memorabilia* in Greek, and I was delighted with them. I read them in an English translation, and I found them tedious and insipid. The translation was apparently performed with sufficient fidelity ; but it did not affect or strike with any peculiar force. I have experienced effects exactly similar in the perusal of other books. To what shall I attribute them ? Are there such charms in the Greek language as are able to give a value to sentiments which of themselves have no recommendation ? Certainly not : but there is a conciseness, and, at the same time, a comprehension of expression in the Greek language, which, I think, the English cannot equal. On the mind of a reader who completely understands the language of a Greek author, the ideas are impressed with more force and perspicuity by the original, than by any translation. The ancient Greek authors, it is acknowledged, paid great attention to the art of composition, to the choice and arrangement of words, and to the structure of periods, so as to communicate the idea, or raise the sentiment intended with peculiar force and precision. Xenophon is known to have been one of the most successful cultivators of the art of composition ; and it cannot be supposed that all who have undertaken to translate any of his works, though they might understand the matter, could have equalled him in the art of composition for which his country and himself were remarkably celebrated.

' The pleasure which a reader feels in the perusal of a Greek author, has been attributed to the pride of conscious superiority over those who are not able to unlock the treasures of which he keeps the key. This opinion has owed its origin to the poor appearance which some of the most celebrated authors of antiquity have made, when presented to the public in the dress of a modern language. The English reader has read translations of the classics, without being able to discover any excellence adequate to the universal reputation of the author. The translator, though he comprehended his author, was perhaps a poor writer, unable to communicate with spirit the thoughts which he conceived with a sufficient degree of accuracy. The blame unjustly fell on the original author and his admirers. He was supposed to have written poorly, and they to have admired him only from motives of pride and affectation. Some, whose ignorance prevented them from deciding fairly, rejoiced to see that ancient learning, which they possessed not, despised ; and eagerly joined

joined in attributing to arrogance and pedantry all praise of Greek and Latin, to which they were inveterate enemies, as well as perfect strangers.

‘ But the supposition that the pleasure which men feel in reading authors in the ancient languages, arises solely, or chiefly, from the pride of possessing a skill in those languages, is too unreasonable to be generally admitted. Of the many thousand admirers of the ancients, who, in every part of their conduct and studies, displayed great judgment and great virtue, must we suppose the greater part either deceived in the estimate of the authors whom they read, or actuated by pride, and mistaking the self-complacency of conscious learning and ability for the pleasure naturally arising from the study of a fine author? Why is not a man, who understands Welch, German, Dutch, and any other language, not remarkable for literary productions, as much inclined to extol the writers in those languages as the reader of Greek and Latin, if the motive for praise consists only in possessing a knowledge of a language unknown to the majority of his countrymen or companions?

‘ In accounting for the great esteem in which the Greek and Latin authors are held, much must be attributed to the languages solely, and exclusively of thought, doctrine, or method. Many who are but poorly qualified to give any opinion on the subject, will impute it to pedantry, when I say, that those languages possess inherent beauties, and an aptitude for elegant and expressive composition, to which the best among modern languages can make no just pretension. Till, therefore, an ancient Greek author can be translated into a language equal to his own, it will be unjust and unreasonable to form a final judgment of him from the best translation.’

The following remarks on the diffidence of boys, and the impropriety of rendering them forward and confident, are expanded in some other essays, and are of great importance.

‘ Diffidence wears off when the mind becomes conscious of a sufficient degree of strength to support confidence. With respect to confidence without merit to support it, though often valued in the world, and particularly in the law, I hold it in great dishonour. It may push its way to employment and opulence, but it is scarcely consistent with a good mind; and without a good mind what happiness is to be found in employment and opulence.

“ *Sincerum est nisi vas quodcunque infundis acescit.*”

HOR.

‘ People who value themselves on knowing the world are very apt to insist on effrontery as a necessary virtue to go through the world with success, or rather to recommend it as the substitute and succedaneum of every virtue. But I never hear these persons boasting of their knowledge of the world, and the value of worldly wisdom, but I think of some passages in Scripture in which it is not held in so high estimation—“ The chil-
dren

dren of this world are wiser in their generation than the children of light :" but it should be remembered, that the wisdom is not that which is from above, but that of the serpent, that of the accursed spirits, originating and terminating in evil under the fair semblance of good.'

The following remarks on prayer are equally just and clearly expressed : with these we must conclude our article.

' The language of a prayer should be natural, and warm from the heart, yet at the same time restrained and chastised by good sense, otherwise it must degenerate to the nonsense of the dotard, or the madness of the enthusiast. Dr. Johnson deserves great praise for the simplicity and energy of many of his prayers. Nothing of his usual style, his long words, or formal periods, is to be observed in them. His good understanding suggested to him the impropriety of all affectation when he laid aside all pretensions to wisdom, and with an humility, which must always become the greatest of mortals, approached the throne of the Almighty.

' After all that taste and criticism can suggest, it is certain that uprightness of intention and fervent piety are the best beauties of supplicatory writings. He to whom prayer is addressed considers not the form of words, and the structure of periods, but the faith, the sincerity, the charity of the poor petitioner. If the heart is right, the errors of the understanding and of the lips will pass unnoticed. Yet it is decent and reasonable to take care, according to the best of our knowledge, not to offer up prayers in which there is any known defect unworthy a creature furnished by the Creator with those intellectual powers, which surely can never be more honourably exerted than in the service of Him who gave them.

" I use not to run rashly into prayer," says Howell, " without a trembling precedent meditation ; and if any odd thoughts intervene and grow upon me, I check myself and recommence ; and this is incident to long prayers, which are more subject to man's weakness and the devil's malice."

*Sermons by Charles Symmons, B. D. of Clare-hall, Cambridge.
8vo. 5s. in Boards. E. and T. Williams.*

M R. Symmons seems to be a young author ; perhaps a young man : he possesses the faults and the excellencies of youth, viz. its fire and luxuriance, not always sufficiently repressed by cooler judgment. His Preface is incorrect and injudicious. It led us to form an opinion of his Sermons, which we changed afterwards with pleasure. Let us state the first paragraph as a specimen.

" At a period when the eloquence of the pulpit seems particularly to be studied, it may be regarded as presumption in the author to swell that copious stream of divinity with which the dress overflows ; especially as, with unaffected diffidence, he declares

declares his consciousness of *insufficiency* to meet the notice which he solicits ; and his sense of the uncommon and superior merit of some modern publications of a description similar to his own.—To the charge of presumption he wishes that he could give a full and satisfactory answer. But from the plain matter of fact, he hopes for the extenuation of his errors as a writer, if not for the exculpation of his rashness as a publisher.'

In the subsequent parts of it, he defends luxuriant language, frequently introducing the words of Scripture, and a warm spirit of devotion, in opposition to the cooler essays which are often delivered to the public from the pulpit.—From these observations, and no inconsiderable share of egotism, we expected the language of poetry, with the warmth of enthusiasm ;—metaphors crowded, misapplied, and confused ;—with a spirit of declamation calculated for the Tabernacle. It is not our faults, if the author holds out false lights to mislead ; but perhaps, from this pre-conceived opinion, his Sermons appeared to greater advantage. We have read them with great care, and they possess no little merit. The luxuriance, natural to the author, is repressed with much care in the more accurate corrected Sermons ; and we perceive that, in the others, where it is more conspicuous, Mr. Symmons is aware that it may run away with his pen ; and endeavours, though sometimes in vain, to guard against this error. Perhaps, on the whole, the language is too warm and florid : but we would not decide too positively on this subject ; and it would be more unsuitable in our Journal, since we have more than once reprehended a too plain and timid manner. We can more confidently say, that these Sermons contain just remarks, clear and pointed explanations of different passages of the Scriptures, with a rational and animated piety.—In many of the Sermons, the divisions, which are not ostentatiously pointed out, are peculiarly happy.

The subjects are : Sermon I. Civil, moral, and religious Advantages derived from Christianity.—II. On Death.—III. On Human Discontent ; or, the duty of Submission to God.—IV. On the Death of Christ.—V. On the Atonement of Christ.—VI. On the Resurrection.—VII. On Natural and Spiritual Man.—Sermon VIII. On the Dispensations of God.—IX. On the Christian Dispensation.—X. On the Temporal Advantages of a Religious Life.—XI. On the Birth, Dignity, and Character of the Messiah.—XII. On the Necessity of constant Attention to the religious Improvement of Life.

Perhaps, in no passage is the author's luxuriance more reprehensible than in the following one : it is taken from the third Sermon.

‘ May not therefore “ the thing formed say to him that formed it, Why hast thou made me thus ? ” I asked thee not for existence. Why then didst thou obtrude it, if it must be followed by affliction ? Creation, it is pretended, is the work of love. Why then am I placed in a world which brings forth only thorns and thistles ? —Why gifted with eyes looking afore and after, when the retrospect is misery, and the prospect disappointment ? The spells of hope, indeed, may sometimes raise a palace to cheat our fatigue, but reflection quickly dissolves the shadowy fabric : and we find ourselves still upon the blasted desert, or in the howling wilderness.’

‘ Cease, wretch ! forbear the frantic expostulation. It is ignorance,—ingratitude,—impiety.—Go to reason ;—she will tell thee, for she has told many, that this life is not the completion of thy being ;—that it is the period only when thy obedience is to be ascertained ;—thy mental energies called forth ; thy virtues strengthened, exalted, refined, and prepared for a more illustrious condition.—Go to revelation ;—she will tell thee that thou art “ a stranger and a pilgrim,” whose home is beyond the grave. That thou art here upon trial, surrounded with afflictions to exercise, and with temptations to assay :—that thou must “ fight the good fight ;” and be victorious before thou art crowned :—that, as thou art a labourer in the vineyard, thou must toil before thou art paid.’

We prefer the first Sermon as most correct ; and in which the author’s fire is most carefully prevented from rising into a blaze. We shall select a specimen of our author’s best manner from this discourse :

‘ Under a scheme of theology (that is the Pagan) so absurd and so nefarious, with what effect could the people be enjoined to reverence their gods ? Could they reverence the capricious, the violent, the revengeful, the lewd ? Could they look up with confidence or esteem to creatures, who excelled the worst of mortals only in power and exemption from death ? No.—From such gods, contemptible as the objects of worship, and dangerous as the objects of imitation, the best that could be done was to take the sceptre of the world : and (with the prudence of Epicurus) to remove them to a distant heaven ; where, undisturbed by the cares of government, they might indulge in their darling sensualities.—The world would certainly not lose by the deposition of these mock rulers ; whose place might be as competently supplied by those non-entities of atheism—chance and fate.’

‘ During the prevalence of such religious illusion how unhappy and liable to error must be the condition of man ! Assured by his observation that “ there was one event to the righteous and to the wicked,” that joys and miseries were indifferently scattered in the paths of life, he saw no other state of being where the caprices of fortune could be accounted for and rectified. In what manner then was he to act ? To accept the splendid offers

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of vice; or to wed the austerity of unendowed virtue? Reason surely whispered him “to eat and to drink;”—to give his appetites their full riot;—for “to-morrow he was to die.” In a very short time,—a year,—a day,—an hour, perhaps, he was no more. The earth-bubble (if I may so express it) was to break.—The sensitive puppet sent upon the stage of existence only, as it seemed, to play a few fantastic tricks;—to enjoy some happiness,—but to suffer much misery, was for ever to vanish, and be forgotten. Horrid and mortifying idea,—the genuine parent of profligacy and of crime!

If these Sermons reach a second edition, we would recommend that they be surveyed with the rigour of attentive criticism: much may yet be repressed with advantage; and the abilities, as well as the learning of the author, would be more conspicuous, if the attention was not unseasonably drawn away by the flashes, the meteors, which occasionally dazzle the cooler reader.

*Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol.
LXXVII. For the Year 1787. Part I. 4to. 7s. 6d.
L, Davis.*

IT is with regret that we have delayed so long the account of the First Part of this annual collection; but as few important articles occur in it, our crime will be of less consequence, and our excuse more readily obtained: annual volumes, from voluntary contributions, must necessarily be of unequal value.

Article I. An Account of a new Comet. By Miss Caroline Herschel.—Miss Herschel, in her brother's absence, has “swept the sky in the neighbourhood of the sun, and caught a comet by the beard;”—in plainer language, she discovered one of these excentric stars on the first of August, 1786. It was followed for a few succeeding nights, but presented no very remarkable appearance: it resembled in colour and brightness the 27th nebula, in the *Connoissance de Tems*, except that it was round.

Art. II. Remarks on a new Comet. By William Herschel, L.L.D. F.R.S.—The light about the centre of the comet was of a confused kind; and the tail extended a few degrees towards the north: it seemed going down to the sun; and we may perhaps hear of it on its return.

Art. III. Magnetic Experiments and Observations. By Tiberius Cavallo, F.R.S.—These experiments have been noticed, at least the most important ones, in our review of Mr. Cavallo's Treatise.

Art. IV. Description of a new Electrometer. By the rev. Abraham Bennet, M.A.—This Electrometer consists of two pieces

pieces of leaf gold, suspended within a glass cylinder: for the particular construction, we must refer to the volume and the plate; but we shall mention a few experiments which were tried with so nice an instrument.—The cap is the part which covers the cylinder.

‘ 1st. Powdered chalk was put into a pair of bellows, and blown upon the cap, which electrified it positively when the cap was about the distance of six inches from the nozzle of the bellows; but the same stream of powdered chalk, electrified it negatively at the distance of three feet. In this experiment there is a change of electricity from positive to negative, by the dispersion or wider diffusion of the powder in the air. It is also changed by placing a bunch of fine wire, silk, or feathers, in the nozzle of the bellows, and is wholly negative when blown from a pair of bellows without their iron pipe, so as to come out in a larger stream: this last experiment did not answer in dry weather so well as in wet. The positive electricity of the chalk, thus blown, is communicated because part of the powder sticks to the cap; but the negative is not communicated, the leaf gold collapsing as soon as the cloud of chalk is dispersed.

‘ 2dly. A piece of chalk drawn over a brush, or powdered chalk put into the brush, and projected upon the cap, electrifies it negatively; but its electricity is not communicated.

‘ 3dly. Powdered chalk blown with the mouth or bellows from a metal plate placed upon the cap, electrifies it permanently positive. Or if the chalk is blown from the plate, either insulated or not, so that the powder may pass over the cap, if not too far off, it is also positive. Or if a brush is placed upon the cap, and a piece of chalk drawn over it, when the hand is withdrawn, the leaf gold gradually opens with positive electricity as the cloud of chalk disperses.

‘ 4thly. Powdered chalk falling from one plate to another placed upon the instrument, electrifies it negatively.’

Wheat, flour, and red lead, are strongly negative where chalk is positive:—sand, cakes of metals, iron filings, coal-ashes, rosin and quick-lime, in powder, resembled chalk. Many other experiments are described, but they are so miscellaneous, and so little applicable, in their present state, to any useful purpose, that, as we cannot abridge, we have little inclination to transcribe them.

Art. V. Appendix to the Description of a new Electrometer.
By the same.—In this Appendix, Mr. Bennet explains the construction of his electrometer, as connected with M. Volta’s condenser. The only additional fact of much importance is, that if the powder is blown at about the distance of three inches, upon a plate moistened or oiled, the electricity is contrary to what it was when dry. Perhaps similar experiments, in a more improved state of meteorology, may be rendered very useful.

Art.

Art. VI. Some Account of an Earthquake felt in the Northern part of England. By Samuel More, Esq.—The earthquake occurred on the 11th of August of last year, about two in the morning.—It seems to have extended from Penrith along the banks of Alswater and Winander mere to Manchester:—its other directions are not noticed.

Art. VII. Determination of the Heliocentric Longitude of the descending Node of Saturn. By Thomas Bugge, Professor of Astronomy at Copenhagen.—The culmination of Saturn was observed with a six feet aeromatic transit instrument; and the meridian altitude with a six feet mural quadrant. From the observations with these instruments, the right ascension and declination, the geocentric longitude and latitude of Saturn are calculated: the calculations are compared with those of Halley and de la Lande, and the several errors are pointed out. The rest of the paper is employed in calculating the heliocentric longitude of Saturn, and that of the node. From these calculations it appears that Saturn's passage through the node happened August 21, 1784; and that the heliocentric longitude of his descending node = 9s. $21^{\circ} 50' 8'',5$.

Art. VIII. Description of a Set of Halos and Parhelia, seen in 1771, in North America. By Alexander Baxter, Esq.—Besides the principal halo round the sun, there was a luminous circle, parallel to the horizon, passing through the centre of the halo, in which were five mock suns: opposite to the sun was a luminous cross, and in the zenith a semi-circle, with the convex part turned to the sun. These phenomena were observed at Fort Gloucester, on the river of Lake Superior, about six miles above the falls of St. Mary's, and as much from the head of the river where it issues from the lake. It occurred the 22d of January, 1771, about two in the afternoon. The peculiar situation may, in some degree, account for the appearances; but the immediate cause of halos is yet obscure.

Art. IX. Observations of the Transit of Mercury, May 4, 1786, at Dresden. By M. Köhler.

Art. X. Observation of the Transiti of Mercury, at Peterburgh. By M. Rumovski.

Art. XI. Account of the Strata observed in sinking for water at Boston, in Lincolnshire. By James Limbird.—We need not pursue the auger in all its different discoveries; but may remark, that at 474 feet from the surface, chalk and gravel were found; and at 468 feet, salt water was drawn up, additional proofs of what we formerly advanced, of that part of the island having been long under the sea. The work is discontinued; but we hope it will be resumed, as under this

vast load, fresh water will undoubtedly be found, which will rise to the surface.

Art. XII. Observations of Miss Herschel's Comet, in August and September, 1786. By the rev. Francis Wollaston, LL. B. F. R. S.—Mr. Wollaston applied his system of wires to this comet, and it seems to have answered pretty well. The author has given a series of observations on the different stars which the comet preceded, or followed.

Art. XIII. Account of a Thunder-storm in Scotland; with some meteorological observations. By Patrick Brydone, Esq. F. R. S.

Art. XVII.—Remarks on Mr. Brydone's Account of a Thunder-storm in Scotland. By Charles, Earl Stanhope, F. R. S.—These articles contain a very remarkable fact, with a sufficiently ingenious and probable explanation. During a thunder-storm, at so great a distance, that the lightning was followed by the sound after a period of from 25 to 30 seconds; a young man, sitting on a cart very near the place of observation, was suddenly struck dead; and the horses shared the same fate. The sound was that of several muskets fired together, without the rumbling sound usual after thunder; or without any sensible flash of lightning. Another young man, about 24 yards behind him, with another cart, on a lower part of a bank, escaped. We need not enlarge on the particulars, or on lord Stanhope's tedious explanation. The fatal blow seemed to be derived from the earth, whence it first struck on the iron of the cart-wheels: it was conducted to the young man's body, while his legs, which hung suspended, were not affected; and from the shafts of the cart it was communicated to the horses, for the hairs of the bellies and legs seemed to have been more burnt than on any other part of their bodies. The principle on which the explosion depended was the following: if two clouds are suspended over the earth, the one near the earth in one part, and the other between that cloud and the earth at some distance; if the first cloud strikes the earth, it communicates to it a superabundant quantity of electricity, and again receives a portion from the second cloud. But, if the earth is dry, the electricity received from the first cloud is not generally communicated; and the second cloud, involving a different part of the earth, that part of it, from the usual effects of electrical atmospheres, must be in a contrary state of electricity from that of the cloud: and, if the earth be within a striking distance, or meets with any proper medium of communication, the equilibrium will be restored by what lord Stanhope calls a 'returning stroke.' In circumstances, favourable in every respect to this returning stroke,

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was this unfortunate young man ; it took place, and the event was instantaneous death to himself and his horses.

Art. XIV. On finding the Values of Algebraical Quantities by converging Serieses, and demonstrating and extending Propositions given by Pappus and others. By Edward Waring, M. D. F. R. S.—It is impossible to abridge this Paper, or to give any particular account of it, since it consists of a series of depending calculations.

Art. XV. Experiments on the Production of Dephlogisticated Air from Water with various substances. By Sir Benjamin Thompson, Knt. F. R. S.—There are but two circumstances, on this subject, completely authenticated ; the one, that air from water is more pure than common air ; the other, that its production is the consequence of light. That light is a substance we well know ; and that it is connected with, and perhaps is partly composed of phlogiston, is probable : if we suppose then, that it is compounded of vital air and phlogiston *, we shall approach more nearly to an explanation of the phenomena of nature than in any other way. This, however, is a supposition, only to be appreciated by facts ; and has no other value than the supposition of the algebraist, in the solution of equations by approximation : — let us attend rather to Sir Benjamin Thompson. He employed raw silk, which collects air very rapidly in water exposed to the light. It was found by our author, that light alone, independent of heat, was the efficient cause of the production of air ; and that the quantity produced was in proportion to the intensity of light, whether that light was from the sun, or collected by mirrors from lamps. It was not peculiar to the silk to furnish, or rather to collect air : sheep's wool, eider down, hare's fur, and cotton wool, had similar properties. The ravellings of linen, and human hair, had very little power in this respect : but, from whatever substance the air seemed to be furnished, the water, in consequence of the process, changed to a greenish or a yellowish hue ; and the colour appeared to arise not from vegetation, but from animalcules. In every instance, where the experiment was pursued to any extent, there was some sediment observed in the water, which, if it did not arise from the animalcules, would seem to show some decomposition of the water itself.

The cotton-like substance produced by the *populus nigra*, whose threads are much more minute than silk, collected air

* We are well aware, that M. Scheele supposed light to be a component part of vital air ; but, independent of the specific heat of vital air, which militates against him, we think our opinion best adapted to explain the several facts.

from water: but it was found, upon examination, that the quantity of air produced was neither in proportion to the solid contents, nor to the surfaces of the materials employed. The air from silk was better than that which was procured by means of plants vegetating; and that the materials acted in a way not wholly mechanical, was evident from spun-glass not having the same effect. It must also be observed, that the power of the silk did not seem to be exhausted in repeated experiments, or the silk to be sensibly altered: even water by itself, when the animalcules were formed, produced pure air, without any other addition. There are some doubts which have arisen respecting the melioration of pure air by vegetation, since dead leaves have the power of separating air from water, and vegetating leaves produce it, even in water saturated with vital air, which it is supposed would not have happened if the pure air was an excrementitious discharge from the plant.

Art. XVI. Account of the Discovery of two Satellites revolving round the Georgian Planet. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.—These satellites were discovered the 11th of January, 1787; and the discovery arose from a change made by the author in his telescope, by which he gained more light. He followed them in their course, and he thinks the first makes a synodical revolution in about eight days and three-fourths, the other in about thirteen and one-half. The planetary nature of the Herschel is therefore completely ascertained.

Art. XVIII. Concerning the Latitude and Longitude of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich; with Remarks on a Memorial of the late M. Cassini de Thury. By Nevil Maskelyne, D. D. F. R. S.—M. Cassini de Thury had asserted, in a memoir presented to the Royal Academy of Sciences, that the latitude of Greenwich was not ascertained within $11''$. The astronomer royal, with becoming zeal, shows that it has been fixed with considerable precision: he explains the various methods employed for this purpose, both by his predecessor Dr. Bradley, and himself, as well as the original of M. Cassini's mistake. The latitude appears, from a mean of two determinations in different ways, to be $51^{\circ} 28' 40''$.—The latitude of the observatory of Paris is probably $48^{\circ} 50' 14''$. Dr. Maskelyne then examines into the causes of M. Cassini's mistake, and refers it to a passage in a memoir of the abbé de la Caille on astronomical refractions, and the latitude of Paris, in the French Memoirs for 1755. The error probably arose from some little defect in the instruments, and the table of refractions employed by the abbé. It is impossible to follow the astronomer royal in all his remarks; but we have seldom seen any astronomical research conducted with equal precision, or any detail more clear.

clear. The difference of longitude between the two places appears to be $9^{\circ} 20''$.

Art. XIX. Account of the Mode proposed to be followed in determining the relative Situation of the Royal Observatories of Greenwich and Paris. By Major-general William Roy, F. R. S. and A. S.—It is impossible to give a proper idea of these methods without the assistance of the plan which accompanies it; but from the talents of those who are engaged in the operation, the accuracy of the instruments which they can command, and the specimen of the attention which we have already given in the mensuration of the base, there is every reason to suppose that the relative situation of the two observatories will be ascertained with the greatest precision.—The remarks on the pendulum, the experiments made with it at Spitzbergen, and their consequences, are extremely curious.

Art. XX. Account of three Volcanos in the Moon. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.—This short paper is very interesting. It is a fact that luminous spots have been discovered on the dark portion of the moon; that these are partial, frequently changing in their appearance, and sometimes disappearing. They must necessarily, therefore, be produced by some active power in the body of the moon; and that power, from its light, must be fire. It is consequently with much reason that they are supposed to be volcanos. The largest must be nearly three miles in diameter.

A Treatise on Tropical Diseases; and on the Climate of the West Indies. By B. Moseley, M. D. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Cadell.

WHILE we lament the misconduct of the last war, and the many lives sacrificed by ignorance and inattention, we receive some consolation in reflecting on the brilliant examples, examples of humanity and care, which it has afforded, and on the more comfortable expectation that the destruction in that unfortunate period has afforded salutary lessons for the future conduct of ministers and commanders. The medical records of that time are full of fatal events; of armies sacrificed to climates and to diseases; of victims, not in the field, but in the hospitals. Dr. Moseley and his predecessors, whose steps we have carefully followed, give sad examples and useful directions: we hope they will not lose their effect.

The work before us contains an Account of the Climate of the West Indies, and the Means of avoiding its dangerous Effects;—an extensive Essay on the Dysentery;—an account of the Yellow Fever;—of the Tetanus;—a short Treatise on Cancers; and another on the Dry Belly Ache.—Of these different diseases the author has seen much, and read more. His observations, however, his reflections, and his numerous quo-

tations, are thrown together with much confusion. His narrative is generally diffuse, and his digressions tedious; yet, in many parts, we perceive the footsteps of a sagacious observer, a just reasoner, and an attentive enquirer. Our author's erudition is very extensive; he generally excites our respect, though we are often displeased at being detained from an useful subject by remarks which, if they were not digressive, we might have styled judicious.

The circumstances which relate to the climate of the West Indies, are generally known, and the means of avoiding diseases are those which have been, with a few exceptions, generally understood. Our author speaks, however, with much disapprobation of the frequent use of acids, and somewhat too positively, in different parts of his work, of their destroying the stomach. We suppose that he means when taken in excess; yet it is difficult to say how far the use of a cooling, laxative, antiseptic nourishment may be carried, without encountering this imputation. His opinion is, however, connected with two others; the one, that the diseases of the West Indies are not in general of a putrid kind; and that the sweat is acid, rather than alkalescent: for the first position, we shall select his own arguments.

'The idea that every thing in hot climates inclines to putrefaction, by the alkalescent disposition of the animal juices, while life remains, appears to me to be totally void of foundation. If bile be prone to alkalescence, milk, lymph, and chyle are prone to acidity, and all habits are not biliary. It is certain, that putrid fermentation is soon excited after death; but there are no pestilential nor contagious fevers, at least in the islands.

Again:

'Much has been said by writers concerning putrid fevers, and the tendency of all fevers to putrefaction, in hot climates. But such opinions are not founded on practice, however they may seem to agree with theory. The great endemic there, is the nervous remittent fever, which is unattended with any putrid symptoms, and which has its seat in the nervous system; or, as I have often thought, in the brain itself. I scarcely remember to have seen a fever accompanied with petechial, or purple spots, in the West Indies; and it is very uncommon to find the parts livid, or gangrenous, where blisters have been applied.'

The acid perspiration is supported with less force; it depends on the smell chiefly, and on the superior refreshment which arises from burning aromatic woods, compared with sprinkling the room with vinegar. Not to speak of the positive assertion of Hillary on the opposite side, if our author reflects on the smell of the perspiration in different diseases, he will find that they do not always indicate the state of the body.

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In puerperal fevers, when the milk is gone, we have often perceived a sour smell : in the confluent small pox, the odour is not very different, at least during the first days. We should endeavour to explain this appearance, for modern chemistry might enable us to do it ; but the discussion would be too extensive. Indeed, though we passed over his opinion of the nature of the West Indian fevers without a remark, it was rather because we would not oppose actual observation by theoretical arguments, than that the opinion coincided with the testimony of other practitioners, or with reason. Dr. Moseley has not explained it very clearly ; we shall probably assist him, by observing, that in his opinion, the quick progress of diseases to a putrid state arises more from the violent inflammation in the first stages than any natural tendency to putrefaction. If this consideration be not added, the doctrine will not be found to be entirely consonant to his own observations. Again : when he says that idiotism is unknown in the West Indies, it must be considered as an hereditary or a primary disease ; for many complaints affect the mental faculties in a secondary way. From similar causes, Dr. Moseley may be often misunderstood by a careless reader.

It is well known that Europeans degenerate in these islands ; but we must add, that some of their diseases degenerate also. The calculus has been known to disappear, after some residence in the West Indies. This fact may be connected with the acid sweat ; but we would advise, before the argument is pushed too far, that it be accurately determined whether the sweat is really acid : if it be, it will make more than one change in the chemical physiology. We shall transcribe one other fact, which is a curious, and, we believe, a true one.

' The reverse of what is supposed to happen to the European, attends the African race. Every generation here, is an improvement on the former. That wild chaos of instinctive notions, which Negroes bring from Africa, seldom can be modulated, unless they come from it very young, to bear any durable, rational impression. When this happens, they look back with horror on their savage state ; and do not easily forgive, unless some compliment is added on their improvements, the reproach of having been born in Africa, and of ever having lived in a state that nature intended for them.'

Of the military operations on the Spanish Main we can give no specimen. The army, from which much was expected, and by which much might have been done, mouldered away by disease. Of the inhabitants on the Musquito shore, the Samboes are said to be Africans, and to have escaped from the wreck of a Guinea ship. With the features they inherit, we find, the vices of the Negroes.

The Essay on the Dysentery is a very extensive one; but its great bulk consists of quotations and copious extracts from the ancients, who deserve less attention on this subject, probably, than on any other, since they so frequently confounded the different diseases of the bowels. Our author's method of cure is by sweating; and he follows Sydenham in thinking the dysentery to be the epidemic of the season turned in on the bowels. The sweating is not brought on by cloaths and heat, but by antimonials and laudanum, assisted by a vomit of ipecacuanha: and Dr. Moseley observes, that perspiration is easily induced, as well as kept up, in tropical countries. When perspiration is brought on, the stools lessen in number, and the evacuations sometimes cease: in this way, our author obviates the objection which may occur against his plan, from the danger of checking the perspiration, by rising frequently in consequence of the other calls.

Instead of the vitrum ceratum he uses the glass of antimony, carefully levigated. This medicine is given in bed; and, as its action on the bowels is abated by the perspiration, he observes, that

'A much larger dose may be given that way: and let me repeat, that an active dose of any antimonial should never be given while the patient is up, and walking about. Ten grains of glass of antimony will act less on the bowels, while the patient is in bed, than three grains will while he is up, and the whole effect turned upon the bowels, by being exposed to the air. Besides, sudden death has been frequently brought on by spasm, from antimonials carelessly administered. If the glass of antimony inclines the patient to vomit, I advise the diluting but sparingly, unless what is brought up indicates foulness of the stomach; but copiously otherwise.'

'From the effects of the vitrum antimonii ceratum, I have never been able to discover that the antimony derives any benefit whatever from its mixture with the wax. For an active dose of either must be given, or it answers no end; and if melting the antimony with the wax weakens its force, a greater quantity must be given to produce a proper effect.—Therefore, I always use the common glass of antimony, preferring a simple medicine that I can depend upon, to a compound medicine that must be liable to uncertainty in its operations, according to the attention or carelessness employed in its preparation.'

As we mentioned the inaccuracy of our author's language, we may slightly hint, that his quotations are not clearly pointed out: we suspected that we had detected him in more than one considerable error; but we must retract the suspicion, and we should not have mentioned it if, in consequence of our enquiries, we had not met with the plant, which probably produces the tapioca: it is described, with the method of preparing

preparing the farina, by Piso, in his Natural and Medical History of the Brazils, under the name of mandioca, p. 114: we have not been able to discover it among the synonyms of Linnæus.

In the Essay on the Dysentery many valuable extracts are inserted from modern authors; and we do not recollect any one of importance that the author has omitted. The morbus mucosus of Roederer, though it sometimes degenerates to dysentery, can scarcely be styled that disease; and his treatise on it is not sufficiently discriminated; so that we cannot blame Dr. Moseley for omitting it. The remarks are very often judicious; but, from the ease with which the disease yielded, he will excuse us for suggesting, that it was a peculiar epidemic: we suspect strongly, that his plan would not succeed so well in this climate. The following solution, when the sudorific process could not be practised, has been, in our author's opinion, singularly useful: the dose is from a drachm to half an ounce.

*** SOLUTIO VITRIOLICA.**

* R Vitrioli albi drachmas tres;
Aluminis rupei drachmam;
Coccinellæ pulveratæ grana tria;

* Aquæ ferventis libram. Misce in mortario marmoreo. Solutio à fæculentia vel residendo expurgetur, vel per chartam bibulam filtretur.

The endemial causus, in the West Indies, is said to be a fever highly inflammatory. It is generally known in medical writings by the name of the yellow fever; and its fatality is considerable. Dr. Moseley directs bleeding, with all the violence of Botallus, not only ad deliquium, but repeatedly. After that, he gives laxatives, puts the patient into a warm bath, orders diaphoretics, applies blisters, and at last recruits the strength with bark. But, though this is the whole routine, the two first remedies are, he tells us, very generally successful. We need not inform our author, who is very intimately acquainted with medical writings, that the success of this plan is no proof of the disease not being putrid, unless the plague, described by Sydenham, and the pestilential fever, treated by Dover, were not putrid, for they yielded to the same profuse bleedings. Dr. Moseley, however, appears to us to deserve confidence; and, whatever may be the nature of the disease, we have reason to believe that his plan has been successful. There is one motive for its use, that it cannot easily be less useful than the methods hitherto practised. The recoveries from the yellow fever were usually very rare.

On the subject of tetanus we perceive a little of the scepticism

ticism of an old practitioner. He thinks that no medicine is of service in this disease, but that it is best prevented by giving bark freely after operations, and an anodyne every night. In this case, his directions apply to the locked jaw, which occurs, he says, in warm climates after amputation, though the nerves have been cautiously avoided in making the ligature. The cures of locked jaws are those, he thinks, of nature, not of art; and he rests much on the opinion of Hippocrates, that, if not fatal before the end of the fourth day, the disease spontaneously subsides. Of the general disorder, he thinks, with justice, that the opisthotonus is the most violent degree of the disease; but he is also of opinion, that the emprosthotonus does not exist. Other practitioners have thought the same; yet we have seen a decided case of it, where not only the flexors of the extremities were affected, but those of the neck and trunk. It had every true character of a tetanic disease, and no particular cause appeared to have excited it. We well know the little force of anonymous authorities; but we have more than personal credit at stake; and, if Dr. Moseley desires it, will put him in a way of procuring the most authentic information.

On the subject of cancers our author gives short, but important information.—His great object is the bay sore, a kind of cancer not uncommon on the Musquito shore; but he observes that it is applicable to any curable cancer. We regret that our author has published his method so plainly, since we have seen bad effects from the indiscriminate use of escharotics. His acrid substance is the corrosive sublimate, which he thinks is superior to arsenic, the remedy of Mrs. Plunket, because it only erodes the morbid parts, with little effect on the sound ones.

Of the dry belly-ache Dr. Moseley's account is also short. He denies that it is produced from new rum, or that the rum is impregnated with lead. After emptying the bowels by the mildest, oily laxatives, he gives his vitriolic solution in a dose, to excite nausea, or a slight retching, and speaks with the utmost confidence of its success. In pulmonic complaints he tells us also, that it is singularly useful.

We must not take our leave of this work, without our acknowledgements to the author, for the information we have received from it. We regret only, that he has employed that time in transcribing from others, which he might have filled usefully by a detail of his own experience; and that a man, acquainted with so many languages, should have attended so little not only to the polish, but to the precision of his own.

A Concordance to Shakespeare; suited to all the Editions. To which are added, Three Hundred Notes and Illustrations, entirely new. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Robinsons.

TO those who look on Shakspere as a divinity, and his works as sacred, a Concordance may seem requisite. We own, that we have styled him the ‘god of our idolatry;’ yet we are not well pleased with the design, or with the execution of this tribute to his shrine. Where the sense of a word is of great importance, it may undoubtedly be determined, by comparing the passages in which it is found; but, in Shakspere, few words require to be fixed in this manner:—words of this kind are not the object of our editor’s attention; and the sentiment is usually of much more importance than the expression. If, therefore, a concordance be collected, it should be of those passages where the same sentiment occurs in different forms: at present the occurrence of the word is sufficient; and of a word which so little decides the force of the sentence, that, as it is not pointed out by different characters, we must look at the title, before we can discover it. This Concordance is now literally a patch-work, where, in each series,

Nec pes nec caput uni,

Reddatur formæ.

We never saw Shakspere in a form so little pleasing, so torn and mangled. Horace has told us, that if we change the order of the words of a true poet, we may yet find his scattered limbs; so in every form, the rugged energy, the poetic majesty, the expressive sublimity of our first poet will claim our respect.

The Notes deserve a different character: they are said to be the efforts of a young, but zealous critic. In his lucubrations we discover the refinement of Warburton, and the bold conjectures of Theobald, mixed with genius and attention: yet we think his fancy often carries him from the proper track. He is more eager to ~~know~~ the meaning of the text, by a bold innovation, than to reconcile it to the context, by a patient attention. Let us examine a few notes of different kinds.

On the following passage, he is perhaps too fanciful.

‘ — move the still-piercing air,

That sings with piercing.]

‘ Still-piercing air’ is very harsh. The old copy reads, “ Still-peering air.”—Peering, I think, may have been printed in mistake for *steering*, and the words which immediately follow (“ that sings with piercing”) somewhat strengthens my conjecture. “ Pierce,” says Helena, “ the air, that regards not your attack—that *steers*, that mocks, that laughs, in short, at your power, but do not touch Bertram.”

Again,

Again,

“The composition, that your valour and fear makes in you, is a virtue of a good wing, and I like the wear well. *All's well that ends well.*”

“A virtue of a good wing, and I like the wear well,” is nonsense. For “wing” we must read *wigon*, a sort of Spanish wool. The whole should run thus—The composition that your valour and fear makes in you, is a vigon of good virtue, and I like the wear well.—i. e. Your valour and fear is a stuff of good manufacture, and I like the wear well. Without such reading, where is the integrity of the metaphor? as Dr. Warburton would say. Few of Shakspeare's metaphors are properly kept inviolate.

Once more,

“I have rubb'd this young quat almost to the sense,
And he grows angry.” *Otello*, A. 5. S. 1.

All the commentators, I believe, have mistaken the sense of this passage. A “quat,” in my opinion, is an intimate, a crony. We now say, when we speak of the intimacy of one man with another,—“O! they are quater-cousins.” I therefore read as follows:

“I have fubb'd this young quat,” &c.
i. e. I have fubb'd, or *put off*, this quater-cousin, or associate of mine, as long as possible, and now he grows angry. “*Quat*” appears to be an abbreviation of “quater,” and may have been used for quater-cousin, or friend, in the same way that *cuz* is employed for cousin, a relation by blood or marriage.

“I will bring thee where Mrs. Anne Page is at a farm house a feasting; and thou shalt woo her: cry'd game, said I well?

Merry Wives of Windsor, A. 2. S. 3.

Mr. Steevens would retain, “cry'd game,” but I cannot think it right. I read, “Thou shalt woo her, and cry amie.” —Amie, Fr. a word of endearment. Thou shalt woo her, says the host, and cry amie,—i. e. salute her with the title of lovely mistress, eh, said I well? That this is the true reading, the context will clearly shew.

Sometimes the author adds explanations highly probable, but which we would admit with caution: in the following, for instance, a blue eye may be correct, as it is a sign of weakness, fatigue, or want of rest.

“A lean cheek; which you have not: a blue eye, and sunken, which you have not.” *As you like it*, A. 3. S. 2.

“A blue eye.” But why a blue eye? I believe we should read “a *flu* eye.” —*Flu*—*fluish*, in the northern counties, is *watery*, *weak*, *tender*. “A flu eye” will therefore mean, an eye filled with tears. *Fluer*, French, to *flow* or *rush*.

Again,

It is not probable that Sir Toby Belch would think it a disgrace to be called drunkard.—We quote the passage also, to show our author's vague method of referring: the explanation,

tion, quoted in the note, we have not; after diligent search, been able to find. The name of the play is of no use in a work, where passages from different plays are mixed, without any order. This reference is not the only one of the kind.

‘Send for money, knight; if thou haft her not i’ the end, call me cut.’ *Twelfth Night*, A. 2. S. 3.

“Call me cut,” i. e. call me wine-bibber—call me drunkard. This is highly natural. Men are very apt to rail against the vices that themselves are addicted to. We now say of a man who has been drinking to excess, that he is *cut*. The meaning of *cut*, in “come *cut* and long tail,” is, however, totally different. See note on *Merry Wives of Windsor*.

Another Note of a doubtful kind, is the following.

‘—— Mine honest friend,
Will you take eggs for money?’ *Winter’s Tale*, A. 1. S. 2.

“Will you take eggs for money?” The meaning is, Will you take *ayes* (i. e. words) for money? *Aie*, in old language, is used both for the affirmative *yes*, and for *egg*. See Chaucer. *Aie, Aye, (En, Teut.) an egg.*

We shall conclude our article with a few notes, which we think, rest on a better foundation: they are chiefly suggested by an attention to the old French, a source of explanation not yet exhausted. Yet, even in this line, our author is occasionally mistaken.

‘I remember, one said, there were no fallets in the lines, to make the matter savoury.’ *Hamlet*, A. 2. S. 2.

“No *fallets* in the lines” is nonsense; and no *salt* in the lines is not right. The poet has here, as is very common with him, adopted a French word, viz. *saletés*, i. e. *smut*, or *smuttiness*. *Dire des saletés*, is, *to talk loosely*. *Saletés* having been at first printed without the accent, was read *saletes*, and thence arose the mistake.

‘Come thou monarch of the vine,
Plumpy Bacchus with pink eyne.’

Ant. and Cleop. Act. 2. S. 7.

“Pink eyne,” in this place, I believe, are neither *small eyes* nor *red eyes*, but *twinkling eyes*; and such as are usually observed in drunken persons. *To pink*, is to wink with the eyes. “He is quite *pinky*,” for “he is quite *fuddled*,” is now made use of in ordinary conversation.

‘—— King Henry’s blood,
The honourable blood of Lancaster,
Must not be shed by such a jaded groom.’

H. IV. P. 2. A. 4, S. 1.

“*Jady groom*” is the right reading (*jadis*, Fr.) heretofore. The sense of the passage is—thou who wert heretofore a groom, and held my stirrup.’

‘—— Can foddern water,
A drench for sor-reyn’d jades, their barley broth,
Decoet their cold blood to such valiant heat?’ *Henry V.* A. 3. S. 5.

"Surreyn'd" is old, worn-out. The French word *surrano* Anglicised, and then corrupted. It should be printed *surran'd*.
One

To whom you are but as a form in wax,
By him imprinted, and within his power
To leave the figure, or disfigure it.

Midsummer Night's Dream, A. 1. S. 1.

"Lave" is the proper word. To lave is a term of art in painting, and signifies to embellish, to beautify.

* Nym, and Bardolph, are sworn brothers in filching; and in Calais they stole a fire-shovel: I knew by that piece of service, the men would carry coals. *Henry V. A. 3. S. 2.*

"Carry coals,"—there is a quibble here on the English word *coal*, and the French word *colle*, which signifies sham, bamboozle, or cheat. "I knew by that they meant to carry coles," i. e. I saw plainly that they were bamboozlers, or tricksters."

Julia; or the Italian Lover. A Tragedy. As it is acted at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-lane. By R. Jephson, Esq. 8vo, 1s. 6d. Dilly.

THE story on which this Tragedy is founded, is remarkable, and well adapted for theatrical representation. The incidents in it are, however, few; and, to fill up the destined number of acts, a duel between Marcellus and Mentevole takes place in the third, which neither perplexes, retards, nor promotes the developement of the plot. In the fourth, an interview between Julia and Mentevole, equally unimportant, but much more improbable, occurs. Can it be supposed that a rejected lover would, in the day-time, place ruffians in the garden of his mistress's father, to assist him in carrying her off, in case she should happen to walk there?—That a man, immediately after he had been apprized of a charge of murder urged against him, and that too justly founded, instead of meditating flight, or preparing to defend himself, should only shew an anxiety to be married?—That, on the lady's appearance, he should enter into a long conversation with her, without expressing any apprehensions of being discovered by the family, on which circumstance the success of his scheme must have entirely depended? The heroine, indeed, sees at last, her father and Marcellus approaching towards them, but not till her situation has been rendered extremely interesting, by her seizing a dagger, and threatening self-destruction. Their appearance gives her an opportunity of quitting the stage with the usual eclat attending virtue reprimanding abashed villainy. The scene, however, if admired, must be admired for itself: it is totally unconnected with the plot; neither this attempt of Mentevole nor his duel with Marcellus produce any effect, or are ever hinted at afterwards.

The

The language is in general good, neither too turgid nor too tame, and well adapted to the stage. A few antiquated expressions, and arrangement of words in Shakspeare's manner, tend to strengthen, sometimes possibly to stiffen the dialogue. We recollect a whimsical, but ingenious critic's observing on the following words, spoken by Juliet,

Oh, sweet my mother!

that they are more affecting from the peculiarity of their location. A similar inversion of words sometimes occurs here; as, 'Dear my Lord,' 'Good my lord,' and, 'Soft you a while; for lo you who comes here.'

Such an imitation as the last, appears a parody, and tends rather to burlesque the original than grace the copy. We meet, likewise, with some awkward expletives; such as, 'That bloody lingering business *there* at Candia.'—'That lady *there*'—'swells up her impatience,' &c.

Such expressions as the following are equally exceptionable:

— 'the bonds of their long amity,

The lie with many mouths has puff'd asunder.'

A mouth of many lies is a more natural image than 'a lie with many mouths.' And, 'To puff a bond asunder,' is rather an incongruous metaphor.

'His sister, as we learn, has sought a convent,

And will no more be found.'

Surely the person who flies to a convent identifies the spot where she is to be found. That circumstance must depend on the *will* of others, not her own.—Some excellent passages more than compensate for these, and a few other slight defects. We were particularly struck with the character of Mentrevoile: it is conceived and executed with much spirit. The haughtiness, and fiery impatience, which he displays in the following scene, are every where preserv'd.

Mentrevoile. Tell me, Olympia, are not women woo'd
By constancy, and deep-protested oaths?

By living on their smiles, by nice attentions?

By yielding up our reason to their humours?

By adoration of their beauty's power?

By sighs and tears, by flattery, kneeling, fawning?

Tell me how many ways a manly mind

Must be debas'd, to win a lady's smile?

Oylm. That which by baseness only can be gain'd,

Were better undefir'd. But say, good brother,

Why do you question with such angry haste,

And what strange fury ruffles all your mien?

Give me your hand: it burns. You are not well.

Your mind unquiet fevers thus your blood.

Ment. No, no: a woman's coldness. Your fair friend,—

Teach her to smile, and my displeasure dies.

‘Olym. She has no sense of joy: that beauteous flower
Bows its sweet head over Claudio’s bloody grave.

‘Ment. Must that eternal found grate on me still?
Hast thou been faithful to me? Hast thou told her,
How thou hast seen these lids, even at her name,
Swell with unbidden tides of melting fondness?
Whole nights how I have fill’d thy patient ear,
And she my only theme? How many times,
When chance has given her beauties to my sight,
Thou hast beheld me, trembling, try to speak,
And gaze away my meaning?

‘Olym. Nay, my lord,
Endeavours true as mine disdain suspicion:
And let me say, if she shou’d ne’er consent,—

‘Ment. How’s that? take heed! If she shou’d ne’er consent?
Put not my life on chilling supposition;
Make it the doubt, Olympia, of a moment,
And though thou art my sister, and a dear one,
By heaven, I almost think that I shall hate thee:
For here I swear, deeply and calmly swear it,
The hour which sees me desperate of her love,
Shall be my last.

‘Olym. For shame! be more a man.

‘Mcn. By the great power which gave me sense and being,
I’ll wrest from fate my folly’s chastisement,
And this right hand shall end me.’

To this impetuous character, that of Julia forms a pleasing contrast. There is something peculiarly solemn and delicate in the following sentiment, which she utters to Marcellus, whose brother, to whom she had been betrothed, was secretly murdered.

‘Julia. There is an aweful witness of this scene,
For ever present here, who hovers round me.
Through the still void I hear a solemn voice;
On his pale lips the unwilling accents hang:
Our vows, he cries, were register’d above;
For thee my breast was pierc’d; see this red wound,
Nor lose the memory in a brother’s arms.’

The characters, however, in general, are not drawn with any strong discrimination: they converse with the same uniformity of diction which commonly prevails in modern tragedies. That of Manoa, an honest and respectable Jew, though but faintly sketched, has the greatest claim to novelty. He is, we believe, the first who has been introduced on our stage without being represented as an object of ridicule, or abhorrence: —such plays as Mariamne, where the scene is laid in Judea, and the dramatis personæ are of that nation, must of course be excepted.

The Life of Scipio Africanus, and of Epaminondas. Translated into English by the Rev. R. Park. 2 Vols. 10s. in Boards. Richardson.

PUBLIUS Cornelius Scipio, distinguished from others of his family by the surname of Africanus, and Epaminondas, were two of the most illustrious characters in ancient times: the former, trained up to arms almost from his childhood, had, in early youth, the honour of subjecting all Spain to the Roman power; while the latter, born in an humble station, and conversant only with philosophy, yet displayed, at an advanced period of life, such extraordinary valour and military conduct, as rendered his country, from being an obscure republic, the arbitress of Greece, and will secure to his name a glorious distinction amongst those of the most celebrated commanders. Whether or not the lives of these great personages had ever been written by Plutarch, it is impossible now to determine; all we know with certainty is, that they have not been transmitted to posterity in the works of that valuable biographer. With the view of supplying this defect, they were executed by M. de Folard, so far back as the year 1739; and, considering both the information he has collected on the subject, and his own judicious observations, it may justly appear surprising that the work has never before been translated into English. The authorities on which the narrative is founded, admitting of no hesitation with regard to the authenticity of facts, we have only to present our readers with a specimen or two of the history. The following extract concludes the Life of Scipio Africanus:

‘ Scipio consoled himself in his disgrace with the comforts of a retired life; but he did not lose the remembrance of it. The resentment he felt for the outrages his services had been repaid with, lasted even to his death, which happened about twelve years after his leaving Rome. His last wishes were a proof of it; he ordered a tomb to be erected for him at Linternum, “ That thou, ungrateful country,” as Livy makes him say, when he was dying, “ mayest be deprived of the honour of my obsequies.”

‘ This resentment roused afresh the inveteracy and rage of envy against him, and his whole house. The people, ever violent in their affections, would have created him consul and perpetual dictator; Scipio remonstrated so strongly against it, that the proposers of the scheme were punished. They would have raised statues to him in the forum and the temples close to those of Jupiter, but he constantly opposed it. They moved that his portrait, painted with all the ornaments of a triumph, and placed in the temple of Jupiter, should be solemnly carried through the whole city. His moderation alone prevented his receiving these honours; thus, as has been since observed

by Mr. St. Evremont, did the corrupter of the manners of his country continue always free from corruption. But to change the manners when such a change is become necessary, is that to corrupt them? And who can say what use Scipio might have made of these changes, had the republic permitted him to carry them to the end he proposed?

‘The zeal and respect of the people, so often merited, and expressed, was at his death, converted into indignation and rage. It was customary at Rome to deliver in public the eulogium of great men after their death. This wise practice multiplied, if I may be allowed the expression, the effect of their virtues, by giving a fresh view of them in a circumstance the most likely to render the impression more lively and affecting. The blind rage of envy ranked among citizens, who had forfeited their privileges, the vanquisher of Hannibal, the preserver of Rome, and the conqueror of Carthage! The meanest patrician was honoured at his death with a funeral oration.—Scipio the Great was refused this compliment by an order of government, which reflected disgrace only on its authors. All who had a just esteem for talents and virtue, indemnified Scipio, by their open expressions of concern for this outrage of his country. The day in which the account of his death reached Rome, was a day of general mourning; it was so justly due to a citizen, who had raised the glory and power of Rome to a height it had never before attained, that the very persons who forbid rendering his name due honour, could not help mingling their tears with those of the public.

‘Pliny relates that he saw at Linternum the tomb of this great man, and that it passed for a truth, that a dragon constantly guarded it. Thus does ancient history disfigure the plain fact by the false marvelous, invented only to amuse the vulgar. The same author adds, that they still shewed, in his time, olives planted by Scipio’s hand, and a myrtle of extraordinary beauty, which he had set; circumstances which prove how much the idea of greatness which great men communicate to every thing, interests the curiosity or rather the vanity of mankind.

‘There was another tomb for Scipio at Rome, raised undoubtedly to him by his family, in happier times. It is well known that great men have experienced more persecution in republics than in other governments; but sooner or later the time of doing justice to their characters arrives. If no people was more capable of feeling this virtuous recompence than the Romans, the memory also of no one was more likely to inspire it than the memory of Scipio.’

The great Fabius, it is well known, was a constant opponent of all Scipio’s measures; and with respect to this conduct, which has been attributed to envy, M. de Folard suggests the possibility that it may have proceeded from prudence. He observes, that all the advantages which were gained against

Hannibal

Hannibal in battle, seemed only to excite Fabius's fears that they might cease to continue ; and if that happened, he would have thought Rome in danger. Scipio, on the contrary, was persuaded that it was doing nothing to drive Hannibal out of Italy ; and that it was absolutely necessary to reduce the republic of Carthage to such a state, that, by subduing her, and making her feel all the evils with which she had menaced the Romans, she never more should have the power of giving them the like alarms. Thus different principles make the greatest men think and act differently, who yet aim only at the same object, the good of their country. This observation of M. de Folard's must, at least, be allowed to be candid ; and, indeed, considering the cool temper, and particularly the great age of Fabius, it seems more reasonable to impute his opposition to a conviction of judgment than to personal animosity.

We shall select the next specimen from the last scene in the Life of Epaminondas.

' Epaminondas, hurried on by that warm zeal for his country which was his ruling passion, was unable to controul it, when he had once given it the reins. He seemed unwilling to suffer a single individual of the Lacedemonians, whom he had so totally routed, to escape. He followed them with a kind of inveteracy which forced him on ; he advanced rashly into the midst of them, without reflecting that the body of his brave Thebans, weakened by fatigue, by wounds, and the loss it must unavoidably have sustained in so warm an action must diminish every instant, and be able to follow him but at a great distance. He found himself at last, almost alone, in the middle of a croud of Lacedemonians, much more alarmed at seeing him amongst them, than he would have been, had he been able to see the great danger to which he was exposed.

' Reflection at last opened their eyes, blinded in a manner by the stupor into which fear had thrown them. They observed that Epaminondas, hurried away by the heat of the action, and the eager desire of conquest, most inconsiderately and thoughtlessly risked his person : they instantaneously fell upon him on all sides. Never did the most intrepid soldier sustain so unequal an attack with more courageous firmness. Pressed from all parts, he at length recovered his usual presence of mind ; he shunned the darts which fell round him, he warded off others with his buckler : several however reached him ; he had the resolution to draw them out of his body warm with his blood and cast them back upon the enemy. At last, while he was wholly engaged in defending himself against those who surrounded him, an officer quitted his ranks, attacked him with his lance shortened, and plunged it into his breast, where the iron, which was broken with the force of the blow, remained. Epaminondas, senseless and covered with blood, fell at length upon

an heap of dead, which he had slain before he received this wound.

* A piece of news of such importance, was soon spread through both armies. In such moments it is that the human heart usually changes the most poignant grief into the most desperate rage. The Thebans flew to the spot where they saw their general fall. Their natural strength, seconded by their fury, put all that resisted to the sword. The Lacedemonians for some time purchased with their blood the hope of carrying off the body of Epaminondas, around which this dreadful slaughter was made. At last the Thebans, equally brave, but much stouter, dispersed them, and with the point of the sword recovered their dying general.

* At this fight their rage redoubled; they returned to the charge, they fell upon the Lacedemonians with still greater violence, whom the impetuosity of their attack had already put to flight; but these generous soldiers were, if I may be allowed the expression, so many bodies which had lost their head. Epaminondas extended on the ground, deprived them of every hope of gaining a complete victory, which but for this accident they would easily have obtained; moreover the whole glory of the battle was hitherto of their side; it would have been imprudent to risk the loss of it, and to see the body of their general carried off. The commanding officers therefore judged it right to sound a retreat to collect their men, who had every where broke their ranks in pursuit of the fugitives.

* The Thebans being returned into their camp, which bordered on the field of battle, their first care was to call together the surgeons. After having examined Epaminondas's wound, they declared it mortal. While the whole army was crying out in despair, they told them that there was not a ray of hope left; that Epaminondas must expire if the iron was not extracted from his breast, and that also he must infallibly die if the operation was performed. Epaminondas heard them without the least emotion.

* It is not so much the death as the triumph of this great man, which the historians here describe. Condemned by the physicians, and sensible himself that he drew near his end, he ordered his shield-bearer to be called, who advanced all in tears. Epaminondas, anxious only for his own fame, and the glory of his country, asked him if he had saved his buckler. He answered that it was safe, and produced it. Epaminondas, transported with joy that so glorious a spoil had not fallen into the enemy's hands, clasped it, says Justin, as the dear companion of his labours and of his glory. He at last enquired which side had gained the victory: they told him the Thebans, and that the Lacedemonians had quitted the field of battle. "I have then lived long enough," says he, since I die with the honour of having never been conquered." At these words he ordered them to extract the iron out of his breast. This dread-

ful order, to the horror of which Epaminondas alone was insensible, threw all the officers and soldiers into despair.

In the midst of this general affliction, one of Epaminondas's most intimate friends could not help expressing his grief in stronger terms than the rest. "O Epaminondas!" he cried, "you are dying, and when you die, we shall lose you entirely, without a hope remaining of seeing you revive in your offspring; you leave us no child behind you." "You are mistaken," replied Epaminondas coolly, "I shall leave behind me two immortal daughters, the victory of Leuctra and that of Mantinea!" Having said this, he again directed that they should take the iron out of his breast, and expired, overjoyed at learning, as he died, the triumph of his country.'

In writing the lives of these illustrious ancients, M. de Folard has availed himself of all the information which could be obtained from Greek and Roman historians. Scipio having been early immersed in military action, and Epaminondas long secreted in the shade of philosophical retirement, the narrative presents us with few of those interesting and characteristic anecdotes which gratify curiosity in the Lives of Plutarch; but M. de Folard, it must be acknowledged, displays a justness of observation, and not unfrequently likewise that depth of incidental reflection, which peculiarly distinguishes the Greek author. As exhibiting a connected detail of the history of two such illustrious personages, we are glad to find that the work has, at last, made its appearance in an English translation, though we cannot bestow any great encomiums on the manner in which it is executed. The version is frequently disfigured with Gallicisms; and sometimes with obsolete English. We shall only specify a few examples:—‘*harvested by the flames,*’—‘*but restored malgré the sufferings,*’—‘*goodly harmony.*’ The translation, however, is perspicuous, and appears to be faithful.

An Introduction to the History of the Dutch Republic, for the last ten Years, reckoning from the year 1777. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Kearsley.

THE commotions in the United Provinces, which, some months ago, threatened to spread the flame of war over Europe, are now happily extinguished, and even seem almost forgotten. Nor is it perhaps of much importance to political knowledge, or to posterity, that the causes which excited them should be traced with minute investigation. Curiosity, however, is undoubtedly interested in such a disquisition; and on this account, the public is indebted to those who have thrown light upon the subject. The author of

of the present Introduction takes an extensive view of the late dissensions in Holland : his knowledge of the country, and its constitution, through the different departments, appears to be correct ; and he displays an uncommon fund of information respecting persons, characters, and incidents ; though, on some occasions, there seems reason to suspect that he is not wholly destitute of prejudice ; and, on others, we meet with some insinuations not satisfactorily explained. As one example, he mentions some dissensions in the stadholder's family, concerning which we are left entirely to conjecture ; at the same time that there appears no foundation for the circumstance on which suspicion would most naturally fix as the object alluded to by the author.

Among the characters with which we are presented in this work, is that of the duke de la Vauguyon, the French ambassador ; whose political conduct the author censures, for not having endeavoured to destroy the union between Great Britain and the stadholder, and joining intimately with the Orange party, as well as with their adversaries. How far this refinement in political intrigue might have been practised with success, it is now impossible to determine ; but the author ascribes the duke's conduct to a private pique ; the account of which, however whimsical, we shall extract, for the satisfaction of our readers.

‘ Some time after this ambassador came to the Hague, there was a caricature print came out of him and Marchand, in which they were represented in the characters and habits of Jesuits, sacrificing the reformed religion, the Seven United Provinces, and M. Berenger, to the whore of Babylon, the genius of France, and the demon of jealousy.

‘ This print was neither ill executed, nor, in the detail of its composition, was it destitute of humour ; at least it seemed as to execution and design to be far superior to any thing that could proceed from the hands or the invention of a plodding, dull, Dutch tradesman. But whatever its merits might have been, it gave the highest offence to the duke and his cabal. The medal of Van Beuninghen did not excite livelier sentiments of resentment in Louis XIV. than this print did in them. And though among us, where the frequency of satirical compositions of this kind renders their effects transitory and insignificant, it would have been laughed at for a day, and afterwards forgotten ; yet in a country where pasquinades of this kind are not so common, it was very capable of operating powerfully on the minds of the multitude, and was long remembered with malevolence. The duke considered the publication of this print as an injury aggravated by an insult ; and his sense of interest

interest was quickened by that of vanity or sentiment: inquiries were industriously set on foot by all the French cabal, to trace the author or the engraver, without in the end producing any clear or positive intelligence with regard to either. However, it was the general opinion, formed on what they called precedent and subsequent facts, that the princess of Orange had it designed, and that the Comte de Welderen got it engraved in London.

' This, whether true or false, was implicitly believed by the duke himself, and it inspired him with such sentiments of vengeance and resentment, the hereditary passions of his family, as ever after powerfully influenced his conduct. This spirit, at first feeble and wary, moved within a narrow sphere, and made its efforts with hesitation and timidity: encouraged by success, it boldly extended its operations; in the course of its progress it continued to acquire vigour, and at length it advanced with a rapidity and force which burst through all the limits, within which honour, the dread of shame, or the fear of reproach had circumscribed its activity. Van Berkel, and other leaders of the high republicans at Amsterdam, were not wanting in either arts or sagacity to cultivate these sentiments, and, uniting closely with the French ambassador, -they jointly concurred to destroy the legislative influence of the prince of Orange.'

In this Introduction, the author has divided his materials into distinct sections; but without scrupulously adhering to any particular arrangement. Besides the information he discovers, his remarks are often interesting. From the manner in which the volume concludes, there is reason to expect a second; and should this prove the case, we hope the author will not forget, that it must be his own information, more than the nature of the subject, which will claim the public attention.

Memoirs of the late War in Asia; with a Narrative of the Imprisonment and Sufferings of our Officers and Soldiers. By an Officer of Col. Baillie's Detachment. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. in Boards. Murray.

VArious accounts, and some of them perhaps not the most authentic, of the late transactions in India, have already been submitted to the public. If ever the imputation of *mendax in historiâ* should be applied to British writers, it could in nothing be urged with greater justice than with regard to the affairs of that continent; where the prejudices of opposite parties are invigorated by the most powerful impulses of private interest; and the distance of the scene gives extraordinary

latitude to the arts of misrepresentation. The Memoirs now before us appear in a ‘very questionable shape.’ The author professes to record the merit of the fate of individuals in our fleets and armies; to particularise their services and their hardships, for the promotion of their interest, if they have survived their sufferings; for perpetuating their names, if they have not: and, in both cases, for the satisfaction and consolation of their anxious relations and friends. These, though very subordinate purposes of historical narrative, might be admitted upon principles of humanity; but we do not, in fact, find that the merits of private officers are any otherwise displayed than as they contribute to the illustration of what is apparently the author’s principal object. With regard, indeed, to the sufferings of the officers and soldiers in the prison of Seringapatam, he is so tediously explicit, that we are presented with almost one entire volume on the subject; but which unfortunately is so ill calculated to excite compassion, by the extreme frivolity of the narrative, that it must provoke, even in the most sympathizing mind, some degree of ridicule on their distresses.

We would be understood to speak without either partiality or prejudice, when we observe that this work is evidently written with the view of celebrating the merits of Mr. Hastings; and we are the more free to declare this opinion, as we not only have the highest confidence in the justice and honour of that great tribunal by which he is tried, but as we think that the seemingly interested adulation of this author implies a very indifferent compliment on the weight and energy of the late governor-general’s defence. Such being the nature of the present work, we presume that we cannot extract any part of it more suitable to gratify the curiosity of our readers than the account of Mr. Hastings before he was governor-general of Bengal, which is as follows:

‘Mr. Hastings is the son of a clergyman of the church of England, and was born at Darlesford, in Worcestershire, the seat of his ancestors for many generations, in the year 1732. His family is one of the oldest and the most respectable in that county: but having taken part with Charles I. during the civil wars, many of its possessions were sold, and the produce expended in the service of that unfortunate monarch. Four mansions, near Barford, in Oxfordshire, are now in the possession of the lineal descendant of Mr. Lenthal, the speaker, which were made over to that gentleman in order to preserve Darlesford, which had been in the family of Hastings since the year 1250, as appears by Dr. Nash’s Antiquities of Worcestershire. The last portion of their patrimonial estates was sold by the grandfather of Mr. Hastings, to Sir John Knight: and his fa-

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ther dying when he was young, Mr. Hastings was left under the care of an uncle, Mr. Howard Hastings, who sent him to Westminster school, where he was distinguished as an excellent scholar, and went into College, the head of his election, in the year 1746. He there gave the first proofs of those "uncommon abilities," as Mr. Francis calls them, which have distinguished him through life—nor was he more remarkable as a scholar, than for personal intrepidity. His uncle dying in the year 1749, Mr. Hastings was left under the guardianship of Mr. Criswicke, an East India director, who appointed him a writer to Bengal, much against the inclination of Dr. Nichol, the head master of Westminster, who entertained so high an opinion of little Warren Hastings, as he called him, that he offered himself to educate him at Oxford.—Mr. Hastings arrived in Bengal in the year 1750, when the English possessed neither territory nor power in Hindostan.—He was in the interior parts of Bengal when Calcutta was taken by Surajah Dowlah, in the year 1756, and was allowed his liberty at Manhedabad, a singular mark of the esteem in which his character was at that time held. At the capture of Calcutta by colonel Clive and admiral Watson, he served as a volunteer in the army, and being the first Englishman in Bengal who spoke the Persian language, he succeeded Mr. Scrafton, in the year 1758, as resident at the court of Meer Jassier, one of the most considerable offices in Bengal.—Here Mr. Hastings remained until he obtained a seat in the council of Calcutta. He quitted India in the year 1765, with an unblemished reputation, and a fortune so moderate as only to entitle him to lodgings in Essex-street in the Strand.—Disappointed in his hopes of returning to India, he had formed a plan, in concert with the late Dr. Samuel Johnson, of founding a professorship for the study of the Persian language at Oxford; but a change soon after taking place in the East India direction, he was appointed second in the council at Madras, in the year 1769, and ordered to succeed to that government.—In the year 1771, the Directors removed him to a country with which he was better acquainted, and he became governor-general of Bengal in the year 1772.

What confirms our opinion of the design of this publication, is, that though entitled *Memoirs of the late War in Asia*, a very considerable part of it is occupied with the domestic occurrences relative to the prosecution of Mr. Hastings. In the narrative on this subject, we can discover the author to be not a little embarrassed between his zeal for the cause of Mr. Hastings, on one side; and, on the other, a strong latent attachment to that gentleman's principal accusers. The foremost of these is Mr. Burke; the account of whom we shall subjoin, as a counter-part to that of Mr. Hastings.

* This celebrated person is a native of Ireland. He quitted his own country nearly at the commencement of the present reign.

reign. Amongst the various peculiarities which distinguish this reign from all others, there is none more striking than the very extraordinary increase of that body of men who are generally termed political adventurers. Mr. Burke, amongst this order of men, has been eminently successful. He made his first entrance into public life in the character of private secretary to the marquis of Rockingham, in the year 1765. He continued steady in his attachment to the noble marquis, from the year 1765, to the time of his decease, and it has been generally thought, that he governed the party, the heads of which, though men of good understanding, were more remarkable for the affluence of their fortunes, and their private worth, than for talents as orators and statesmen. By a prudent, though not sordid economy, he avoided the inconveniences and the dangers of embarrassed circumstances, and amidst all the vicissitudes of his public life, preserved an independent and erect mind, with a narrow private fortune.—From the earliest years of Mr. Burke, there was something in his sentiments, pursuits, and manners, that indicated to the discerning eye sublimity of genius and delicacy of taste. As he advanced in years the presages formed concerning him were more and more confirmed: and he grew up in favour with all around him. An interesting sweetness and sensibility of countenance prepared the stranger for thinking justly of the humanity of his disposition; and, from the richness of his conversation on every subject, he was pleased, though not surprised, to find intellectual excellence in conjunction with moral goodness. There is nothing in nature that is solitary, or independent of that universality of things which composes one harmonious whole: nothing so insignificant that it may not be associated by a vast variety of connections, with something most interesting and sublime: and all the arts and sciences are linked together in one chain, affected by mutual influence, and sustained by mutual support. Hence the copious and disciplined fancy of Mr. Burke, whether in private conversation or public discourse, both in speaking and writing, diffused a captivating charm on every subject, and gave relief and animation to topics the most dry and barren.—The sciences have a natural tendency to produce candour and forbearance, by inducing in the minds of their votaries an habit of tracing every action and every effect to its proper cause. And polite literature and the fine arts, by exhibiting human nature in an infinite variety of interesting situations, excite a thousand social and humane emotions, which cannot spring from all the occurrences and vicissitudes of the most varied life. Thus the man of letters becomes a citizen of the world. His enlarged mind acquires an habit of sympathetic indulgence. The antipathies and prejudices which set men at variance with one another, are gradually worn off. Nothing that belongs to human nature; no peculiarity in national character; no common failing or imperfection of the individual member of society, moves either the ridicule

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or the rage of the man who is accustomed to contemplate nature and humanity under manifold forms, and in whose breast disgust and even indignation at the effect, is partly lost in the contemplation of the cause. The character of Mr. Burke, was marked by nothing more than superiority to vulgar prejudices, and unbounded philanthropy to all classes and nations of men. It was this expanded sentiment that, on different occasions, inspired him with courage to resist the popular fury, when it had broken loose with a savage ferocity against unfortunate criminals, and a proscribed religion. It was perfectly natural for such a spirit to enter by a lively sympathy, into the sufferings of the Indian nations under European tyranny, and to indulge an honest indignation against their oppressors. He suffered his imagination to dwell with pleasure on the visionary project, of uniting the freedom of the natives of India, with their dependence on Great Britain, and of bringing to exemplary punishment, an individual who had uniformly acted in the character of the first minister in India, on those very principles by which our possessions in that country had been acquired, by which they had been maintained, and by which alone, beyond all manner of doubt, in times of civil convulsion, they could be recovered or preserved.—The finest genius, the most generous disposition, is not unusually found in conjunction with an irritability of temper, which magnifies its object. Although it may be too much to affirm, that belief is nothing more than vivid perception, attention has undoubtedly a microscopical power, and this power we can command at pleasure.—Hence that wonderful variety of opinions that prevail, on so many subjects, among men of equal understandings: for while reason and truth are uniform and invariable, the passions and interests of individuals are various: and when once the will begins to influence the judgment; fertility of invention, instead of being a lamp of light, becomes a source of error. Mr. Burke, in his eagerness to impeach the governor-general of Bengal, lost sight of constant precedent, and political necessity: and, for what had become the predominant passion of his soul, his imagination, fertile even to excess, easily found a cover in partial views, and plausible theories and conjectures.'

However the talents and benignity of the ‘political adventurer’ may seem to be flattered by this delineation, we find, in less than the space of two pages, that, with respect to a transaction, ‘in defiance of law and common sense,’ the same ‘Mr. Burke was the grand mover of this business.’

The other of Mr. Hastings’s accusers, celebrated in this work, is Mr. Sheridan; whose character, as there drawn, we shall next present to our readers.

‘Richard Brindley Sheridan, a descendant of that Sheridan whose name is immortalized in the writings of dean Swift, was, like Edmund Burke, a political adventurer, and a native
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of Ireland, though he was educated in England, and, for some years, under the tuition of the learned and classical Dr. Samuel Parr. He possessed, like his illustrious countryman, excellent qualities both of body and mind, improved by a learned and liberal education : an expressive countenance, a manly yet pleasing deportment, great insinuation and address, versatility and accommodation of manners in the common intercourses of life, but, in matters of importance, inviolable attachment to his professed principles. He was introduced to public life by Mr. Fox ; and he has paid the finest compliment that was ever yet made to that wonderful man's penetration and discernment of character. He was distinguished, as well as Mr. Burke, by learning, eloquence, wit, and humour ; and, like Mr. Burke, he maintained unshaken fidelity to his friends, with a narrow private fortune. In short, the country, the situation, and the friends of these men were the same ; and their talents and virtues nearly equal in degree, but different in kind. Though Mr. Burke knew how to excuse the follies and frailties of his fellow-men, he was, from the sensibility of his temper, indisposed to remark them. Mr. Sheridan had a quick apprehension of whatever was either odious or ludicrous in human life and conduct, but, except on the theatre, he seemed too good-natured to observe it. Mr. Burke inclined somewhat to the sternness of republican virtue : Mr. Sheridan, to the indulgence of a court. They both of them seasoned their orations with the pleasing excursions of fancy : but, while Mr. Burke often rose from earth to heaven, and it was not every one who accompanied him in his flight that could distinguish the summits of mountains from clouds, clear argument and business were always the predominant features in the speeches of Mr. Sheridan. The former preserved his dignity by husbanding fortune : the latter by despising it. Mr. Burke, like Cicero, sacrificed at his Tuscum, both to the muses, and the household gods, Mr. Sheridan, like Cæsar, sought to reign in the hearts of men, refused nothing when he had aught to bestow, and, in every situation, with his eye fixed on the objects of a lofty ambition, waited in perfect tranquility for that relief which the common vicissitudes of human affairs, rightly improved by commanding genius, are wont to bring to all difficulties.'

From some of the parts above extracted, we suspect that the author has been dipping his pencil in the well-known Preface to Bellendenus. In a work intended to gratify both Mr. Hastings and his accusers, little consistency can be expected ; but we cannot behold, without a degree of astonishment, the incoherent and complicated prejudices manifested in that now before us. The author affirms, that 'the first lord of the treasury, jealous of the great mind of Mr. Hastings, embraced with avidity a pretext for humbling the man whom he considered as his rival, and veiled his own hostile fears under the sacred name of regard to justice.' This

This case is certainly none of those 'where the conclusions of the understanding,' as the author observes in another place, 'derive not an impetus from the emotions of the heart.' Indeed, the impetus is so strong, that it has evidently offered violence to the understanding.

The author has eked out the work with an Appendix; containing a description of an Eastern haram, differing little from the common recitals on this subject; a Narrative of the Treatment of the English prisoners taken at Bednore; a Prison-song in Seringapatam, and another in Bengalore: but the person who believes that the Muses ever were courted in the hour of real distress, must entertain a very erroneous idea of the constitution of the human mind. In perusing this work, we were sometimes disgusted with a repetition of particular expressions, and often with a turgency and affectation of style and sentiment, the concomitants of vitiated taste.

*Observations on various Passages of Scripture. Vols III & IV.
8vo. 13s. Johnson.*

IN the year 1765, Mr. Harmer first published one volume of Observations on different Passages of Scripture, which appeared again ten years after, with very considerable additions: this new edition was divided into two volumes, and was examined in our XLIInd Vol. p. 43; while the former occurred in the XIXth Vol. p. 105. The volumes now before us are supplementary ones; and their substance has been collected from sources of information to which Mr. Harmer had not formerly access. We greatly regret that Volney's Travels were not in his hand: this very able and intelligent author might have rectified many mistakes; and, by his observations, saved many long discussions. Indeed, Mr. Harmer is not sufficiently cautious in his choice of authorities.

It is, we believe, well known that Mr. Harmer endeavours to explain different parts of Scripture by the account which travellers have given of the customs of the East; and we have received no little information from his former work. Whether the most important circumstances had already been explained, or, from some late publications, our knowledge of the subject has been improved, may be still uncertain: we found, however, this supplement less interesting than the edition of 1775. Much labour is employed in ascertaining facts of little comparative importance; and much time is spent in answering some deistical objections, which would have done little injury to true religion, if they had remained in their full force, and which it is almost impossible to elucidate, at this distance from the æra of the events.

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Our author has prefixed to these volumes, a Specimen for illustrating the Greek and Roman classics, from the same sources, the travellers to the east. As a specimen only, this is not, perhaps, a fair object of criticism: yet we may remark, that, in the instances chosen, Mr. Harmer has not sufficiently elucidated some parts, and has mistaken others.

When he produces a passage from Dr. Chandler, to show that the goats were permitted to browse on the vines, if he had recollectcd the following lines (or their original in the Anthologia), it might have been equally decisive.

*Rode Caper vitem, tamen hinc, cum stabis ad aram,
In tua quod fundi cornua possit, erit:*

Or when he adduces Shaw's authority, to show that purses were not tied to the girdles, but were contained in the girdles themselves, this common of Horace might have contributed to the elucidation.

Ibit eo, quovis, qui zonam perdidit, inquit.

Perhaps, in almost every instance, the Roman classics are the best elucidators of their countrymen's works.

The part in which we think our author has committed the greatest mistake, is in his remarks on the murrine cups. We shall make some observations on this subject, because it is curious and little known, as well as that Mr. Harmer attacks Pliny, by an uncandid remark; which may, with less injustice, be retorted on himself:

The passage in Propertius, which led Scaliger to believe porcelain was meant, is as follows:

*“Seu quæ palmiferae mittunt venalia Thebæ,
Murrheaque in Parthis pocula cocta fociſ.”*

Lib. iv. El. 5. v. 25, 26.

Four things are evidently supposed by Propertius in the last line—that these murrine vessels were earthen ware, or the production of pottery; that they were extremely precious; that this valuable matter was generally, if not always, so far as he knew, formed into cups; and that he believed them to have been made in Parthia.

One thing that may have inclined many of the learned to suppose these murrine cups were not porcelain, may have been, it's being much more commonly called china, or china ware: being sensible that the knowledge that the Romans had of the remote countries of the East did not reach to China, or near that country; and supposing that, till very lately, the art of making porcelain was no where known but in the Chinese empire.

We give the author full credit for his quotation from Chardin, and believe with him, that porcelain was really made in an early age in Persia, and, we may add, many other places in the East. We contend only, that Pliny does not mean porcelain by murrine cups; and that the lines in Propertius will bear

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a very different interpretation. If our author thinks, that the passage in Pliny ‘does no honour to his care in making enquiries concerning those matters about which he wrote,’ we must think that the observations of Mr. Harmer do no honour to *his* care in reading the author whom he has criticised. These stones are found, says Pliny, in different parts of the earth: they are splendid without strength, and neat rather than splendid. They are admired for their colours, and for the shades of colours, verging from the purple to the milky white: to be pale and to be transparent is an equal fault. They are celebrated also for the smell which they afford: and are seldom so large as the common drinking-glasses. The assertion of their being found in the earth is supported by their being sometimes transparent, the gradual shades of colours, and their odour. Each is inconsistent with porcelain, and the knowledge of the Persians in that manufacture. We must now reconcile their fossil nature to the words of Propertius.

For this purpose, we shall refer again to Pliny, who, in his 14th book, speaks of a kind of wine which is called murrinam: it was perfumed with myrrh *, and sometimes the calamus aromaticus; if the wine was not originally sweet, it seems to have been sweetened with honey or raisins. This wine is mentioned, with great encomiums, in the Pseudolus of Plautus. Varro is of the same opinion: and Mercurialis scarcely differs from it, when he considers the murrina, or the murrhea, rather as sweet perfumed drink than really wine. We shall not adduce the disputed passage in the Persa of Plautus, because it was not understood even in the time of Cicero, and of course, cannot be elucidated at present. It is, however, pretty obvious that a perfumed liquor was employed under this title; and, if it was really not wine, was used instead of it: the origin of this liquor was undoubtedly an attempt to give a similar odour which the myrrhine cups imparted to common wine; and this odour from the myrrhine cups, was chiefly conspicuous when the wine was hot, as we learn from Martial.

‘*Si calidum potas, ardenti murra Falerno
Convenit, sic melior sit sapor ille mero.*’

In the former passage we should be rather inclined to consider the murrea pocula as draughts of perfumed wine; for pocula, in the poets, is a term which more frequently signifies the liquor than the cup. Add to all this, the passage in Propertius, where he calls the murreus an onyx.

‘*Et crocino nares murreus ungat onyx.*’

* We may just remark, that the ‘contemptus odor Smyrnæ’ in Lucretius, and the ‘myrrham olet’ in the Asinaria of Plautus, shew that this perfume was not greatly relished.

Whatever interpretation we give to this line, it is very inconsistent with porcelain; and the different passages unite only in supposing the stone in question to be a kind of agate, with a mixture of the lapis faillus, a stone that gives out some odour when warm.—This odour, it is true, is not very agreeable, nor was that of the murrina, in the opinion of Plautus, more so.

Our readers will excuse this discussion, which we have pursued chiefly to show, that ‘*It is not Pliny nods; but he that dreams.*’ If, however, the author will contend, that the value of the murrina prevented these cups from being so common as is supposed, and that their colours were imitated in porcelain, we shall not oppose him: he may adduce in his favour the line of Martial:

‘*Surrentina bibis? nec murrina picta nec aurum,*

‘*Sume.*’

They were, indeed, very valuable: those authors who reckon gold and silver vessels among furniture, deny this term to the murrine vessels on account of their rarity: yet when we consider the extreme luxury of the primores populi; when we see the common people imitating the odour rather than the colours of the cup, even this supposition will appear improbable. The epithet of Martial may allude to varied colours of any kind.

The principal subjects of the third volume are, the weather of Judæa; the mode of living in tents in that country; its houses and cities; the diet of its inhabitants; their manner of travelling; and the eastern methods of doing people honour. In the fourth volume, Mr. Harmer endeavours to elucidate the substance on which their books were written, their preservation, and the different kinds of books; together with the natural, civil, and military state of Judæa. Some circumstances relating to Egypt, its adjoining wilderness, and the Red-sea, with miscellaneous matters, are then subjoined.

As we have already given our opinion of these volumes in general, we shall only add a specimen or two of the author’s observations. We have formerly had occasion to attempt an elucidation of the camel entering the eye of a needle, so that we shall select Mr. Harmer’s account of it: we, however, prefer the former explanation.

‘What makes the comparison used by our Lord so painful to the mind, when he said, “It is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle, than for a rich man to enter into the kingdom of God,” seems to be it’s appearing quite unnatural, as we have no conception of its being at all in use to make a camel pass through any narrow passage. Very widely extended

extended deserts is the idea we associate with that of a camel; such an animal's being put to force its way through a narrow passage we have no notion of: it therefore appears unnatural, and gives us uneasiness. But this is wholly owing to our unacquaintedness with local circumstances.

' I have elsewhere given an account of its being common for the Arabs to ride into houses, and commit acts of great violence, if measures are not taken to prevent them. The eastern doors, therefore, are often made very low, in order to guard against them, not above three feet in height.

' This keeps out the Arabs, who are almost centaurs, and seldom tempted to dismount in their excursions, but, we should suppose, must be very inconvenient for the inhabitants, who make so much use of camels, and must often want to introduce them into their court-yards; but, though they are so much taller than the Arab horses, this is done, however, by training up their camels, not only to kneel down when they are loaded and unloaded, but to make their way on their knees through such small door-ways.

' This must sometimes, without doubt, be attended with great difficulty, and makes the comparison of our Lord sufficiently natural: "It would be as easy to force a camel through a door-way as small as the eye of a needle, as for a rich man to enter into the kingdom of God."

' Strong painting this, according to the eastern custom! it is allowed; but nothing unnatural, since camels are often forced through a small aperture, though certainly much larger than the eye of the largest needle that ever was made: the Arabs of the times of our Lord, and indeed long before, being of the same plundering disposition with those of the present generation, and consequently must have been guarded against in much the same manner.

' I have not only met with an account in some book of travels, of camels making their way on their knees through the low eastern door-ways; but I have found in the papers of a very ingenious clergyman, containing observations of a similar kind to these, that he had been assured by a "gentleman that lived many years in Morocco, that the entrances into the houses there are low for a similar reason, and that loaded camels pass them on their knees."

We shall add the following passage, because its length is well adapted to our limits.

' There is so much resemblance between an expression of surprise, made use of by the Turks, upon an exhibition of the military kind among them by the baron de Tott, and some words of Balaam recorded in the book of Numbers, that I thought it might be worth while to take notice of it.

' When the baron de Tott was endeavouring to make them better gunners, for want of which they suffered such great losses in the war with the Russians, which terminated in 1774, he was

forced by them, very contrary to his wish, to fire a cannon at a certain mark. Upon redoubled solicitations, he was prevailed on to point the piece, and was not less surprised than those around him, to see the bullet hit the piquet, in the centre of the butt. The cry *machalla* resounded on all sides.

'At the bottom of the page is this note: Machalla (What God has done!). An expression of the greatest admiration.'

'This reminds one of an expression of Balaam, Numb. xxiii. 22, 23. "God brought them out of Egypt; he hath as it were the strength of an unicorn. Surely there is no enchantment against Jacob, neither is there any divination against Israel: according to this time it shall be said of Jacob, and of Israel, What hath God wrought!"'

'These words may be understood to be expressive of devotion as well as surprise; but a word of this import appears to be used now in the East merely to signify surprise, and nothing more, probably, was meant by Balaam.'

We must not leave our author without observing, that he has, with great care, collected various facts; and that, in general, he has employed his materials with skill. If the observations of travellers are useful in elucidating the classics, they may be most advantageously employed in the Greek classics: but much has been done in this way; though it might perhaps be of some utility to collect the scattered treasures, and bring the different illustrations into one view.

The author of the History of Ali Bey was, we find from Mr. Harmer, Signior Lusignan, who resides at present in this kingdom. The authenticity of this history has been attacked by M. Volney, in the first volume of his Travels, p. 116. As the internal evidence induced us to consider it as a genuine work, and as there is not the smallest suspicion of any designed misrepresentation, we wish this gentleman would put it in our power to say something for him and for ourselves.

Idées sur la Meteorologie. Par J. A. De Luc, Lecturer de la Reine, tome premier. Part I. & II. 8vo. 14s. Elmsly.

MDe Luc's volumes, on the Modifications of the Atmosphere, fixed his credit, as a natural philosopher, on the solid basis of well-conducted experiments and judicious reasonings. Since that period he has not been idle; his work on the earth and its minerals, and the volume which now lies before us, bear ample testimony of his diligence and ability. The subject of meteorology is not, however, new to our readers; we thought that we could not direct their attention to it under a better guide than M. Saussure, and we could not have introduced M. de Luc more advantageously than under his auspices.

We must confess, however, that we think M. de Luc's first steps exceptionable. His definitions go beyond the bounds with-

in which they should be confined, for they include theory also. He calls elastic fluids expandible ones; but he goes on to explain their expansibility, and allows them an inherent activity, not well suited to the vis inertiae of matter, or to phænomena. Light he considers as one of these expandible fluids, in our opinion, without foundation. Every phænomenon of light seems to show that each ray is projected in straight lines, in which it proceeds, unless reflected by a body not transparent, refracted by a change of medium, or a little deflected from its way, in passing near the surface of solid bodies. If light be an expandible fluid, it can only be so when, in a concrete state, it makes a component part of a body; but in that state we cannot examine it. That in a separate state it is not an expandible fluid has been sufficiently shown by sir Isaac Newton at the end of his Optics, where he speaks of its effects not being produced by undulations, which they would be if the light was an elastic, or if M. de Luc pleases, an expandible fluid.

M. de Luc's first consideration is evaporation, in which he repeats his former opinion, that it is the effect of the union of fire with water. This is certainly true, but the expandible fluid thence arising is probably dissolved in the air. In the subsequent part of the chapter on evaporation, he considers the various circumstances which influence evaporation and the state of vapours in different situations.

The next subject of inquiry is hydrology, or the chemical effect of these different vapours. The union of fire with water, in the production of vapours, destroys the peculiar effects of each, and it is only on the dissolution of this union that the moistening power of water appears; this is what M. Saussure calls the hygrometrical affinity. M. de Luc explains particularly the different causes which contribute to the decomposition. He then examines the nature of an hygrometer, and explains the properties which it ought to possess. The substance to be dilated and contracted, which he now employs, is whalebone. The extreme point of dryness is, in his opinion, best ascertained by plunging the instrument in water; in moistened receivers he thinks there is always a difference, according to the temperature, and he shows the source of the error which M. Saussure fell into in his experiment. M. de Luc is probably in the right, and for this obvious reason, that M. Saussure found his instrument on high mountains and in fogs to point somewhat beyond the mark of extreme humidity *. Hot steam is a very improper medium for this purpose, since Mr. Watt has observed, that the wood-work employed in those machines, in which steam is used, cracks as if from extreme heat. In fact, in an atmosphere of hot steam, there is a strong attraction for water, and it may turn the instrument somewhat towards dryness; but this is the case with *very hot* steam only; it cannot materially affect the experiments with the hygrometer. Extreme

* Mr. Saussure has, however, very lately replied to this and some other of M. de Luc's observations.

dryness he ascertains with lime, fresh calcined; indeed the point at this extreme cannot be fixed with greater exactness than by M. Saussure. Our author's hygrometer is graduated in the same manner, and into the same number of parts as M. Saussure's. The whalebone he thinks expands regularly and constantly in an equal degree in the same state of moisture; the thinner it is, the more sensible. Our author drew it out to a foot in length, and a line one-twelfth of an-inch in width, so thin, that it weighed only half a grain; it might be drawn still thinner, but is, in this state, sufficiently sensible. M. de Luc next examines different substances, as proper for making hygrometers: those which expand regularly are, in his opinion, wood, reeds, ivory, other bones, feathers, and whalebone; they must be cut transversely, and not in the direction of the fibres; hair contracts it regularly, and numerous comparative experiments are subjoined to prove this position. He then returns to the theory of evaporation, in order to explain the increased dryness on exhausting a receiver. He thinks M. Saussure's reasoning insufficient; but, in the progress of the argument, has hazarded many remarks, which, if true, are only so in particular circumstances. We think that this appearance is not very satisfactorily explained on his own principles, and we own that we feel a little repugnance to admitting his explanation of fire as a dissolvent of water. The first part concludes with some remarks on the comparative progress of hygrometers, in which he owns that M. Saussure's instruments are preferable.

The second part is very copious and extensive; it relates to vapours, considered as a class of expansible fluids. The author begins with definitions, as usual, and shows that vapours generally consist of two ingredients, the yielding and the heavy fluid. The yielding or changeable fluid is light, or heat; the heavy one is water, or any other substance capable of assuming an aerial form. He then shows the differences between vapours and airs, and refers the spontaneous or sudden changes of the former to the less intimate union of the ingredients.

Fire first claims our author's attention; he calls it an expansible fluid, whose yielding ingredient is light, and whose more solid one is a substance not yet clearly understood. He explains many of the phænomena of fire, from this principle; but we own that we are not yet convinced of the justness of his system, while we see bodies which possess the matter of fire as an ingredient decomposed without the appearance of light; yet there is much ingenuity in the system which is built on our author's theory of vapours. When the particles of fire are accumulated as much as possible, and reach their maximum, then he supposes the decomposition begins, and light, as one of the ingredients, is let loose. The influence of light is, on this account, very extensive, and it forms part of a system which M. de Luc has hinted at in another work, that the effects of heating bodies arise from the light, which, meeting with the matter of heat, forms new fire, or adds a force to

to the fire which had already been decomposed. The great power of the solar rays, when collected either by a reflection or refraction into a focus, seems to arise from the quantity of light, the earth too receiving so much light, which is increased, or at least in some degree prevented from dissipation, by reflection, occasions the great heats in the lower strata of the atmosphere. On the same principles the phænomena of phosphoric bodies are explained, and some curious facts of this kind, as well as those which relate to heating bodies, not commonly known, are elucidated.

The next section is on the phænomena of heat, and chiefly of those which result from the different capacities of bodies. Heat our author considers as the effect of uncompounded fire in different substances, and its degrees to be those of the real expansive force of the fire, not of the quantity of actual fire accumulated, because different bodies are heated in different degrees, though exposed to the same heat, in equal times. The motions of the particles of expansive fluids, M. de Luc attributes, after M. Sage, to an æther similar to that supposed to exist by Newton. But we have formerly, in our Foreign Literary Intelligence, given a short account of that author's *Lucrece Newtonien*. The numerous circumstances and explanations since added to it, are shortly hinted at by our author, and employed by him to explain the different capacities of bodies for receiving heat. The whole is, however, too hypothetical, and too doubtful, to induce us to enlarge our article with a particular account of it.

The phænomena of heat which accompany combustion are also explained in a manner which we think doubtful. In gentle heats the pure air is supposed to be reduced only to fixed air, by the addition of inflammable air; in stronger heats the two airs are, he thinks, destroyed, and water is formed. Much time is employed in explaining the appearances of Argand's lamps on this principle, with very little success. The whole depends more plainly on the flame being hollow: as a greater surface of flame is exposed in that case to the air, than in a common lamp or a candle, the oil is more completely burnt. The transparent part of the flame is visible in a common candle at the bottom of the wick: we see it at this moment, and it arises only from the purer parts of the oil and tallow being first burned. The water which was collected from the patent lamp arises from that which was contained in the oil. Argand's lamp is undoubtedly an invention of much merit, and we wish that the inventor could have secured the profits which the patent would have produced in the usual time. Nothing but an extraordinary zeal in Mr. Argand's favour could have led M. de Luc for a moment to look so deep for the advantages of the patent lamp. We suspect too that M. de Luc is a follower of M. Lavoisier in more respects than the composition of water. He speaks with much caution about phlogiston, as a distinct principle *. He proceeds to the

* When a late journalist speaks with regret of the loss of M. Morveau, to the system of phlogiston, we suspect that he means his change of opinion rather than his death. We should be sorry for either event.

phænomena of heat, so far as they regard liquefaction, and considers liquidity to arise from the union of fire with bodies, which lessens the intimate union and attraction of the particles of which they consist. He opposes, at some length, the hypothesis, that a change in the capacity of bodies for retaining heat is the general cause of the phænomena of the augmentation and diminution of heat, which occur independent of any direct communication or depravation of this principle. The language of latent heat, when applied to that heat which produces fluidity, he objects to, since heat cannot be latent where its expansive power is conspicuous. If fluidity is the consequence of fire added to any substance, it may be very properly asked, from whence arises the fluidity of ice, when sea-salt is joined with it? This question our author answers particularly, and seems to consider the necessary proportion of fire to be contained in the salt; and that, by this means, a diminution of heat appears to take place: but there are some phænomena of this kind which are not yet well ascertained in all their circumstances, because where many bodies are concerned, whose affinities to fire are not well understood, this element may be furnished by their decomposition, without affecting the thermometer.

The last section of this chapter is on those phænomena of heat which proceed from the decomposition of the grosser atmospheric fluids, which, as possessing fluidity in a greater degree than water, must, according to M. de Luc's system, contain a greater proportion of fire. In this section he explains himself more particularly, and endeavours to show that greater or less degrees of heat proceed from the decomposition and production of these fluids, rather than any difference in the capacities of bodies for retaining heat. This position is ascertained, in M. de Luc's opinion, by an ingenious experiment of Mr. Watt, from which he learns the quantity of heat required to form vapours, by the heat which they deposit in consequence of their decomposition. Our author then observes, that more heat is contained in pure and inflammable airs, since the water formed by the electrical spark passing through them, is at first in a state of vapour, besides the fire which is decomposed by the light, and is conspicuous during the experiment. The difference in specific gravity arises from the fire being clogged with different substances; and the chemical differences in air's arise, our author thinks, from the different affinities which their component parts have to the fire. The section is concluded with some remarks which are designed to obviate objections, and some reasons why fire is not more often conspicuous in our different decompositions. To our author's system we shall add no observations, though we must own that his experiments are not decisive, in our opinion, to show that no variation can follow from the different capacities of bodies for heat, independent of their attraction for fire as a component part; nor is it in any respect clear that fire is the very universal dissolvent which M. de Luc supposes.—The next chapter, on the electrical fluid, however,

ever, contributes to elucidate the subject; but this we must reserve for another article: and though our articles may be somewhat disproportionate, the disadvantage from this cause will be much less than that which would arise from stopping in the middle of a subject.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued from p. 67.)

WE have often had occasion to regret that our work increased under our hands; and, in very few instances, have we formed a plan for a continued account, without its being broken and interrupted by the accession of new information. M. Reynier and M. Des Fontaines have added to our information on the generation of plants, and on the irritability of the sexual organs; but their memoirs we must mention at some future time, for, if we continue on one subject till it is exhausted, we fear that we shall never be able to proceed to any other. Materials will accumulate faster than we can write.

As we proceed, however, from insects, in our historical detail, to more perfect animals, it may not be improper to mention an observation of M. Reynier: he has lately told us, that the *aranea fasciata* of M. Poiret is found at Lausanne. But the count Razoumowski, who has examined the spider of Switzerland, and compared it with the descriptions of Fabricius, and the abbé Poiret, thinks that they should be referred to different families, as the eyes are arranged in different orders. The Lausanne spider, therefore, he considers as a new one, and describes it in the following manner: ‘*aranea pulra media, maxillosa, corpore ovato oblongo, thorace villoso pilis albis, abdomine pedibusque nigris, fasciis flavis pulcherimus ornatis.*’

The next subject of natural history, which has lately excited the attention of philosophers, is the structure and economy of fish. M. Brussonet’s memoir on the respiration of fish is, in many respects, a valuable one. He describes the organs of respiration in the two great classes, the cartilaginous and the spinous kind: in the first, the gills are supported by a cartilaginous arch; in the others, by little incurvated spines. He examines the relation of the heart to the lungs, its corresponding size in each class, with a variety of particulars, which our limits will not permit us to enumerate.—We need scarcely mention, that the heart of a fish has one auricle and ventricle only; that the great artery is immediately lost on the gills, whose branches are again collected and dispersed over the whole body; but the arteries which arise from the gills have no pulsation. The gills differ in their structure; in those fish which remain long in the same water the gills are supported on short bony arcs; the cavity is large, and they are provided with means to retain the water some time. Others, which inhabit seas, and swim with rapidity, have an

additional organ, like another lobe of the lungs in the human body. It is distinct from the gills, and situated in their cavity, towards the base of the opercula, and behind the elevation which the orbits form. The canal, by which the air is transmitted to the lungs, differs also in different kinds of fish:—in the lamprey, for instance, its form is very singular and sufficiently known. In fish too, the air contained in the water is received and returned by different apertures: it is confined by the opercle which is firmly fixed to the body of the fish, and forms one side of its thorax. When, therefore, the mouth is opened to take in water, by corresponding motions the opercle is opened to let out the water formerly contained in the cavity; and when the mouth is shut, the opercle is also closed. This operation may be easily seen in the gold fish kept in a glass vase.

The effect produced on the water, by its transition through the lungs, is unknown: we have reason to think, not only as in men, that the phlogistic principle is separated from the blood, but it may be suspected, that air is actually absorbed, and again secreted in the air-bladder. This part of chemistry is probably on the eve of being elucidated, since we have lately attained much of the previous necessary information. Fish cannot sustain a very considerable augmentation of heat, in the surrounding element, without injury. Various stories are, however, related by M. Brussonet, of the great heats of mineral springs which have supported fish. Some of these we have had occasion to mention; and though more are now accumulated, we must still confess that we remain incredulous. Our author's own experiments seem to show, that fish cannot easily support a heat beyond 25° of Reaumur, or at most, more than 28° (from about 88° to 93° of Fahrenheit) *. There is not, however, any great difference between this heat and the temperature which men can support, if we consider that water communicates heat much more quickly and perfectly than air. Man probably could not sustain the heat of 100 degrees in water, for many hours together; and this does not depend on the relaxing quality of water as such, for vapour is more powerful in this respect, yet greater heats are supported in an atmosphere of hot vapour, with impunity. Independent of heat, fish are injured by continuing long in the same water: the cause of this we have just hinted at, and we repeat it, in order to observe, that the only effort to discover the change in the water, which our author has made, is to add syrup of violets to it, which becomes greenish, after some time, and shows that a little alkalescence is imparted to the water. In lime-water, the fish discharge a finous matter, and seem after it to recover a little; but they soon die. It is probable, therefore,

* There is always an uncertainty in reducing the degrees of Reaumur to those of Fahrenheit. Dr. Martine first pointed it out, and M. de Luc has repeated the observation. The uncertainty arises from that of the strength of the spirit used. The thermometers now mostly used are mercurial ones, and we do not therefore employ the correction,

that

that lime-water is unfit to combine with the matter which it is necessary the fish should discharge from its lungs. Water impregnated with fixed air was soon fatal to its inhabitant, and the mouth and opercles were wide open : the aerial acid seemed not to be of itself injurious or disagreeable, but only to have saturated the water with one of the ingredients which the fish wanted to discharge ; for, when the animal was killed by lemon juice, or the acid of arsenic, the mouth and the opercle of the gills were firmly shut.

M. Brussonet, in another memoir, has given some observations on the scales of those fish which have been supposed to be without a covering of this kind.—He begins with remarking the general differences of the scales, according as the fish are designed for the deeper waters ; or to encounter the shock of corals, madrepores, and rocks, in places nearer the shore. He goes on to explain their arrangement and disposition, according to their different manners :—in some, for instance, they are almost covered with the skin, and serve only to give this covering a firmness and a polish, while in others, they are bucklers of defence from the attacks of any enemy. Our author, however, soon proceeds to describe particularly those fish which appear to have no scales.

The first species mentioned, is the *cepola tænia* of Linnæus. M. Gouan tells us, that it has no scales ; but M. Brussonet discovered them under a fine delicate membrane. They are arranged in oblique lines, crossing each other like chequers ; and when they drop off, they leave a mark almost square. The appearance of these scales in a microscope is also described. The animal swims with great agility. A similar form in the arrangement of the scales, was discovered in two fish which belong to the genus, styled by Gronovius, *mastacembalus* : one of these was brought by sir Joseph Banks from the South Seas. The remora was long supposed to be without scales ; but their existence has been already demonstrated.

The scales of the sand-eel must be of a peculiar construction, because its manner of life is uncommon. They are so small, that they have escaped the observation of many ichthyologists. They are arranged like those of the *cepola tænia* ; but the oblique lines are distinct from each other. Every part of the head and body of the common eel is covered with a skin of a close texture, and a white colour, with innumerable blackish points, which, through a microscope, represent spots. The skin is covered with a very fine blackish epidermis ; and, between these two coverings, are found little oblong or round follicles, formed by the union of both skins, which pour out a fluid through innumerable apertures. In each of these follicles a scale is found : the convexity is on the outside, and the concave surface is connected to the body of the fish by many different vessels. This discovery, which is not, indeed, perfectly new, may prove unfortunate to this species ; for the Jews do not eat of it, because they are forbidden to eat fish without scales. It is too late for them

them to be injured by Numa's law, which Pliny tells us directed no such fish to be employed in sacrifice. The organs of generation of the eel also, have not been properly described, except by Valisieri.

Many kinds of murænas, which belong to the same genus, and are found in the Indian seas, have scales like the eel:—the *lupus marinus* *, expressly described by Willughby, and Gronovius, as without scales, has larger ones than the eel, concealed in the same way. Some species of the genus of *blennius*, the *viviparus*, for instance, has similar scales, though smaller. A species of *labrus*, the *donzella* of the Italians, and the *labrus julis* of Linnaeus, has scales of the same kind; but they have been already described by our author, in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1781. In all these fish, the scales are concealed under the skin; they are distant from each other; and the animals are deprived of the ventral fin, or at least these parts are so small as to be scarcely perceptible, and of little service in supporting it. The body is lengthened in these species, that by its undulating motion the fish may be sustained. They seldom go far from the shore; and are capable of living in vases. The aperture of the gills is small, and the skin, which covers the whole head, becomes transparent over the eyes.

There are two other species which have the scales almost concealed. The one is a *scomber*, described by Brown, in his Natural History of Jamaica:—its body is thin, of a silver hue, and finely polished; its skin resembles leather; its body is marked by lines raised above the skin, directed from the head to the tail, which touch at the sides. These lines are formed by strait, elongated pointed scales, fixed on the skin, and covered by a scarf-skin of a silver hue. They are about one-third of an inch long, attached to the skin by a vessel, which is united to its smallest extremity, and nearest the head. These scales cannot easily be separated, and they give the skin its firm texture. The other species is described by Margrave, under the title of *gueham*. It forms a new genus, nearly allied to the *scomber*. There is a species of it in Sir Joseph Banks's collection: its scales are near three-fourths of an inch long, flattened, and almost wholly covered by the scarf-skin. Margrave describes it as without scales: both species swim with uncommon velocity. These elongated scales are somewhat analogous to those which cover the body of the *sea-dog*.

Different species of the *tetraodon* have fine scales like pins, raised above the body, which are necessary to animals whose bodies are often swelled, and again reduced, at pleasure, to their former size. Some have hard united scales, others soft and flexible ones. Their growth, and the manner of their increase, is to be the subject of future memoirs.

* This is not the cetaceous animal which we call the sea-wolf, but a smaller fish, similar to the *blennius*: we have not been able, after some pains, to ascertain its genus with precision, unless it be the *anatichthys lupus* Linnaei.

If we consider the more perfect animals, our attention must be soon attracted by a very learned dissertation on the animal which Homer and Aristotle have called θῶς. The author is M. Miljin de Grandmaison; and, after a display of very extensive erudition, he agrees with Buffon, in thinking it the jackal. Mess, Pallas and Guldenstaedt consider the jackal as the wild-dog, and the origin of the common dog: more lately, Mr. John Hunter, in an essay, which will be soon published, endeavours to prove, that the jackal, the wolf, and the dog, are varieties of the same species. Indeed, though M. Buffon's experiment was unsuccessful, the similarity of manners have always associated the two last animals; and, from their union, fruitful individuals have been produced. In fact, while the ancient *thos* is supposed to be the jackal, the animal described by Oppian and others, who are suspected to have been in an error, from the very slight account of the earlier authors, is more probably the spotted hyæna. Mr. Pennant thinks that the *thos* of the Greeks is the animal styled by Appian the yellow-wolf.

Another Essay, in the department of zoology, which we must mention, is on the jerboa, by M. Sonnini de Manoncourt. We shall not follow this author in his outrageous and uncandid attack on Hasselquist and Linnæus, by whom it has been styled *mus jaculus*, nor contend with him when he denies that it is of the rat kind. It has undoubtedly some resemblance to the rabbit: but while the definition of the *mus Linnæi* remains as it is in the system of nature; while it is allowable to group similar individuals under one generic title, our author's remarks are of no great consequence. M. Sonnini is more reprehensible, when he makes this animal, who leaps only with great activity, a connecting link between quadrupeds and birds. His object is to prove that the jerboa is the *alagrada* of Tartary, described by Gmelin, in the new Pittsburgh Transactions. We have not this work at hand, but in the first volume of the *Découvertes, faites par divers savants Voyageurs*, compiled from Gmelin's papers, we find an accurate description, and a good figure of the animal, under the Linnæan title of *mus jaculus*. M. Sonnini's description is, however, somewhat fuller; but if Linnæus was so reprehensible, it is a little remarkable that Gmelin, who was an *autoptæ* as well as our author, should not have pointed it out.

If it were advisable to separate the genera, there are undoubtedly many animals with which the *mus jaculus* might be properly arranged. Yet, to disturb the present order, would not be very convenient: if, for instance, it was referred to the *lepus*, which it more correctly resembles, the peculiarity of the hinder feet would be lost: if to the genus *cavia*, which Pallas, after the example of Klein, wishes to form, the association would be still more unnatural; and, if it be arranged with animals which spring from the force and the elasticity of their hinder legs, it would approach too near the cat and tyger. If genera are, therefore, at all useful, it appears better to leave the *mus jaculus* in its present place.

The

The animal is not easily confined, as it gnaws the wood of its cage; it loves warmth, and is very tame, but its quiet is insipid insensibility, without interest and without attachment.

In this detail of natural history, we may now descend to the structure, and constitution of the globe, in different situations: but, on this subject we cannot afford much novelty, from the inquiries of our neighbours. Somewhat has, however, occurred on the Natural History of the Islands of Goree and St. Domingo, which may deserve our notice.—The information relating to the former island, is from M. de Preslar to M. Faujas de St. Fond. This island, he observes, consists of a craggy rock, with a little tongue of good land: the rock, we apprehend, is on the side next to the Atlantic; for the sea washes it with much fury, and has discovered different columns of basaltes, chiefly pentagonal, raised vertically on each other, except towards the lower part of the pic, where the columns seem to have been broken, and to be inclined at different angles. The basaltes are black, of a fine texture, and so hard, as to strike fire with flint. In short, there is no doubt of its being produced by a volcano. The mountain is covered by a volcanic earth, which proves to be a good puozzolane, and capable of cementing, even with bad lime, into a very hard terrass. The neighbouring islands of Magdelaine, at a league and a half distance, are also volcanic; and the sea having made numerous indentations, show that basaltic columns occur at a great depth, and of course do not depend on the lava being cooled by the water. Many trees, in these islands, are 60 (French) feet in circumference. Their electrical machine, of which the plate was 24 inches in diameter, gave pretty good sparks; so that it may be excited in the torrid zone. The thermometer is scarcely, at any time, under 12° of Reaumur (59° of Fahrenheit); on the 15th of January, it was at 16° (68°), sometimes it has been at 24° (86°); and in the sun, even at 40° (122°). There is seldom any rain but in the rainy season; and then, in the space of three or four months, from thirty-six to forty inches of rain fall, which is scarcely more than falls in the whole year in those parts of England where rain is most common.

The natural history of St. Domingo, by M. le Genton, is much more particular, and it is very interesting, since, from an examination of the currents to and from the Gulf of Mexico, it is sufficiently evident that the whole gulf was once dry land, while most of the Leeward Islands appear to have been raised by volcanos, and exhibit proofs of the destructive force of the currents, and of the productive power of internal agents, which have been looked on as equally pernicious. The French part of the island is the object of this author's attention; it is, on the northern side, opposed indeed to the Atlantic, but in the eddy of the current which passes through the Bahama Channel, and draws the water away with it: from this cause the shallows and low islands between it and the American shores seem to be produced. The mountains in the neighbourhood of Cape Francois

rise suddenly to sharp points, and are calcareous, supported by rocks of grit and granite, pretty certain signs of a former connection with the continent. The granites form an extended chain, which reaches to the Spanish side of the island, and differ only in the proportion of their constituent parts, except that they seem to contain a little calcareous earth in their substance. This fact is somewhat extraordinary, but it is not ascertained with much precision. The calcareous strata are parallel, and contain porphyry, flints, and different marine exuviae. The mountains are rich in minerals and metals. Towards the extremity of the black mountain, in an aluminous stratum, is found some fossil wood in the state of coal; on one side of the island is a pretty considerable mass of the loadstone. Though no volcano appears in this island, it is not improbable, from these facts, that the mountains have been raised by some active power in the bowels of the earth. We cannot quit the subject of mountains without mentioning that M. de Luc has replied to some parts of M. Saussure's relation of his journey to Mount Blanc, in which the observations of the former are combated. The replies are not always satisfactory, though in some instances they are so. In our review of M. de Luc's work we have mentioned some points on which these two philosophers differ; in fact we preferred giving an abridged account of the facts of M. Saussure's journey, because we were aware that some controversy would probably arise from it.

Caroli a Linnè Amænitates Academicæ, Vol. VIII. & IX. Edidit
J. Christian Daniel Schreberus, 8vo. Erlargæ, 1785.

WE must acquit ourselves of a former promise by shortly mentioning the object of the editor in these two additional volumes, and giving a concise account of their contents. The collection, published under the title of *Amænitates Academicæ*, have attracted the attention of the naturalist and the physician so much, that in no library of importance they are wanting; and though many editions have been published, copies are now scarce and extravagantly dear. There is more than one Dutch and German edition, besides that of Stockholm; and Dr. Pultney, an able and adequate judge of these subjects, has even thought it of importance to give an abstract of each essay.

The first volume was not collected by Linnæus, but by Camper, and dedicated to Mr. Peter Collinson. It was published in 1749 at Leyden, and Camper undoubtedly intended to continue the collection, as, in the title-page 'volumen primum' is added; but the dedication, which is very particular, only mentions the essays of that volume: besides, of the second volume, the second edition is printed in the title, with a note, that the first edition appeared at Stockholm in 1751. The Stockholm edition of the first volume appeared very soon after the Leyden one, and is dated in the same year. If any dispute arose on this subject, it was soon

soon compromised, as the volumes were afterwards published at Leyden, or at least the latter Leyden copies bear the same date with the Stockholm ones. We have explained this part of the subject, because Dr. Pultney left it uncertain.

These Dissertations are the theses published by the students when they take their degrees; and, in foreign universities, are usually the works of some of the professors, or at least the professors contribute the materials. To complete the set, however, some Dissertations were deficient; but they were those in which Linnæus had only assisted the candidate. The early death of his son prevented him from rendering the Amænitates perfect, as he had intended; and Schreber has now collected what remained. The Dissertations are 36 in number, and divided into two volumes:—the first contains those to which Linnæus contributed a large share, and they form the eighth volume; while the others are those in which he had little or no concern, though they were published at Upsal during the period in which he presided.

The Dissertations in the eighth volume are distinguished by the following titles:—*Coloniae Plantarum*; *Medicus sui ipsius*; *Morbi Nautarum Indicæ*; *Flora Åkerensis*; *Erica*; *Dulcamara*; *Pandora et Flora Rybyensis*; *Fundamenta Testaceologiae*; *Respiratio Diætetica*; *Fraga Vesca*; *Observationes in Materiam Medicam*; *Planta Cimicifuga*; *Esca Avium Domesticarum*; *Marum*; *Viola Ipecacuanha*; *Plantæ Surinamenses*; *Ledum Palustre*; *Opium*; *Bigæ Insectorum*; *Planta Aphyteia, et Hypericum*.

In this collection we find much to commend, and somewhat to blame. As many of the Dissertations were written long ago, new improvements have occurred which ought to have been pointed out, lest, under the authority of Linnæus, mistakes be widely disseminated. In the Dissertation on the plants of Surinam, the names are compared with the genera of the younger Linnæus, in his Supplement; and those plants, whose parts of fructification were not sufficiently perfect to allow of their being admitted into the Supplement, are properly noticed. Yet the ipecacuanha is still supposed to be a species of viola, though it is correctly described in the same work, and referred to another genus. The plant described by Vandelius, which led Linnæus into his mistake, is pretty clearly, from the figure of its root, a very different species. He had styled it *Pomballia*; and we fear the marquis de Pombal has, by this means, lost the opportunity of having his memory preserved among the botanists. Among the statesmen he was never entitled to much distinction. We could have wished also, for the reputation of Linnæus, that some of these Dissertations had been omitted. It is not for his credit to revive the theory of the exanthemata viva, nor to propagate the story of his being cured of a fit of the gout by eating strawberries. Most physicians know, that the paroxysm of a disorder is first perceived to yield by some degree of appetite returning, and

and the food required is as various as are the fancies of patients.

We cannot give a long account of these volumes; yet a short explanation of the subjects may not be improper, as the titles are sometimes quaint and unintelligible. The *Coloniae Plantarum* relate to the emigration of many plants from their native soil to other countries, where they at last appear among the indigenous vegetables: the origin of many of these is distinctly traced, as well as the means of their conveyance. It is, however, surprising, that the country where wheat was indigenous has not yet been discovered. Sicily has the fairest claim.

The second is a pathological disquisition on the six non-naturals, and the effects of inattention to the due degree in which they are necessary. The subject of the third is evident; it affords nothing new, except that the author attributes intermittents at sea to stinking water, and cures the *tænia* by a solution of lithanthren in spirit of wine. Akero is an island situated in a lake in Svedermania; its flora is not very remarkable.

The Dissertation on the *Erica*, contains Linnæus's arrangement of the species; little is added to its uses, and these are not important. The diseases on which the *dulcamara* is said to be useful, are numerous; while more modern practitioners find it inefficacious. It is certainly not so powerful a diuretic as has been supposed.

The seventh Dissertation contains a list of the flowers and the insects which they support, that occurred in a farm of Bæck's, called Ryby. Pandora is a collective term applied to insects, as Flora is to plants, and Fauna to animals. The *Fundamenta Testaceologizæ* is a very accurate and useful work. The advantage of free air, and the dangers which arise from close places and contaminated air, are well understood. Our author's Dissertation is chiefly valuable for the facts relating to the salubrity of different countries. The Essay on the strawberry we have already noticed; it is not only to cure gout, but to dissolve the calculus.

The observations on the *Materia Medica* contain an account of the effects of some remedies little known in this country. They point out also, with some probability, the genera and species of others, whose origin is not very certain. The effects are rather those of tradition and report than of reason and experience. The *Cimicifuga* (*Syst. Nat.* 1282) is a very foetid plant of the class *multisiliquæ*, where it stands near the *Delphinium*, *Aquilegia Helleborus* and *Actaea*. Except for drawing away the insects, from which its name is taken, we do not know that it has been used. Gmelin indeed mentions, that in Siberia the natives employ it as an evacuant in dropsy; its effects are violently emetic and drastic. The food of domesticated birds is particularly pointed out in a series of experiments, resembling those which were made on the food of cattle, in a former volume of the *Amœnitates*, and which are translated and augmented by Mr. Stillingfleet. The Essay on the *Marum* (*Teucrium Marum Lin.*)

Lin.) is a pretty complete account of the botanical and medical history of the plant ; it is a warm odorous bitter, but nothing is added concerning it to the relations of other authors. The Dissertation on the Ipecacuanha we have already mentioned.

The enumeration of the Surinam plants is somewhat anticipated by the Supplement of the younger Linnæus ; but it is very complete, and rendered more valuable by a constant reference to that work. Of the Gustavia Augusta, a very beautiful flower of a noble tree, a good plate is annexed ; and we may now observe, that the plates of these two additional volumes, which are pretty numerous, are much better executed than those of the former volumes.

The Ledum Palustre is a warm fetid plant ; its œconomical uses are numerous ; its medical ones are chiefly for external diseases : and it is in this Essay that Linnæus seems eager to recommend it internally, in those complaints which are supposed to proceed from insects, particularly in dysentery. We meet with the same hypothesis in the Essay on Opium, but no new information is added relative to its effects or its use. Bigæ Insectorum means only a pair of insects : two new ones are described which were found in the collection of Dr. Fothergill ; the first is termed the Dioplis Ichneumonia, the other Papus Microcephalus ; the one is dipterous, the other coleopterous. The Aphyteia is a parasite plant, found at the Cape of Good Hope, by Thunberg ; it is without leaves, and described, as the editor should have told us, in the Supplémentum Plantarum p. p. 48 and 301. There is only one species, the A. Hydnora. The Hypericum, with its different species, is described ; but the best part of it is that in which we are informed it will cure the phthisis : a handful is to be boiled in two quarts of Spanish wine till half is consumed, and a dose is to be taken morning and afternoon.

Of the Dissertations in the second volume we shall only transcribe the titles, because Linnæus contributed little, if any thing, to them, and because they are not of sufficient importance on their own account to induce us to enlarge on them. Hæmorrhagiae uteri sub statu Graviditatis ; Methodus investigandi vires Medicamentorum chemica ; Consectaria Electrico-medica ; Pulsus Intermittens ; Cortex Peruvianus ; Ambrosiaca ; Hæmopryfis ; Venæ resorbentes ; Februm Intermittentium curatio varia ; Hæmorrhagiæ ex Plethora ; Suturæ vulnerum ; Medicamenta purgantia ; Perspiratio insensibilis ; Canones Medici ; & Scorbutus.

Yet, before we entirely leave this volume, we must except the Dissertation on the various remedies of intermittents from the general censure. It is an extensive and laborious compilation ; and, in the greater number of the Essays in the last volume, if we do not find the extent of original information, and the curious remarks which distinguished those whose materials were furnished by Linnæus, yet these defects are compensated by a degree of medical erudition, which is honourable to the young candidate,

candidate, and may be of service to the reader. If it be observed that in this volume we find Linnæus had given up the theory of intermittent fevers, published in the first volume of the *Amænitates*, we must reply, that the same information may be found in the fifth and sixth, in the *Dissertations on the Febris Up-saliensis*, and the *Quassia*. His new opinion is not indeed better founded; and the absorption of an acid from the air will prove a system equally untenable with the accumulation of argillaceous earth through the medium of water.

A very useful Chronological Index of all the *Dissertations* published during the period when Linnæus presided at Upsal, and contained in these nine volumes, is subjoined.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

DIVINITY.

Two Sermons. By J. Lettice, B. D. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

MR. Lettice has engaged with two powerful antagonists, the idolater of the Graces, and the author of the *Task*; but his native force of mind would have enabled him to contend with success, if the strength of the ground had not given him peculiar advantages.

The first sermon is on the kind of manners most suitable to the clerical character, and an enquiry how far ministers of the Gospel may use this world without abusing it. In this examination he makes a forcible and pertinent distinction between the knowlege of man and the knowlege of the ways of men; between an acquaintance with the human mind, and the conduct of the world, in most instances the worst part of the world. He contrasts, with great skill, the good-humoured complaisance dictated by benevolence, and guided by morality, with the artificial and corrupt manners, the tinsel of politeness, recommended by lord Chesterfield.

In the second sermon, he defends the conduct of education in our universities against the gloomy and too unqualified satire of Mr. Cooper. Yet, different minds looking at the same object will select parts of it suited to their various dispositions: each may be correct, because each describes what he saw; and each may misrepresent, because he only describes in part. Mr. Lettice is, however, an able advocate; and we are happy to reflect that such a pleasing view of the subject has the sanction of an eye-witness.

A Sermon. By Edward Parry. 8vo. 1s. Lowndes.

This Sermon, founded on the parable of the good Samaritan, is published for the benefit of the Chester infirmary. It is an elegant and judicious discourse; but we were sorry to perceive our author stepping out of his way, with some zealous

commentators; to see him look on the good Samaritan as our Saviour, and explain his labour of benevolence and humanity, by the redemption of mankind. This interpretation, however, does not detain the preacher long from his principal object.

*A Sermon preached on the 22d of August, 1787, at the Ordination
of the Rev. John Love, Minister of the Gospel at Crispin Street,
Spitalfields, by the Rev. Thomas Rutledge. To which is added the
Charge, by the Rev. William Smith, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Elliot.*

The exercises, at an ordination, are often tasks undertaken unwillingly, and executed hastily: at least we know no other reason for the imperfect state in which we have often found them. Mr. Rutledge and Mr. Smith seem to have been drawn into public against their inclination; but their works will bring no disgrace on their characters. If we cannot praise their compositions, as highly polished, and peculiarly elegant, we can, with truth say, that they are clear, religious, and practical.

P O E T R Y.

*Mont Blanc: an irregular Lyric Poem. By the Rev. T. S.
Whalley. 4to. 3s. Baldwin.*

This Pindaric composition is not destitute of poetic fire; but the light is neither steady nor clear. It is sometimes veiled in smoke, sometimes suddenly blazes like a meteor, and renders us more sensible of the obscurity which surrounds it. Many images in it are well chosen; but we meet with few passages of any length that are unexceptionable. The following is no unfavourable extract. The third line alludes to the summit of Mont Blanc; which, as we have observed in plain prose already, is broken into three distinct heads: and the immense quantity of snow which covers it is supported by rocks of granite, which, when the moon shines clear, form the beautiful representation depicted towards the conclusion.

' When night assumes her awful reign,
And solemn shades obscure the plain,
How graceful then thy domes arise,
Imperial mountain! to the skies,
And their eternal vigils keep
Over the silent realms of sleep!
All hush'd about thy throne sublime,
Save the soft-treading foot of Time,
Beneath whose endless pressure, fall
The noblest cities' tow'ry pride,
The hills, the mountains, rocks, and all
That art or nature e'er supplied;
All, all, but thee; for still thy state
Defies the tyrant's envious hate,
And still thy regal pomp appears
Unblemish'd by the weight of years

Since change and fickle chance are seen
 Heaping new honours on thy *shows*,
 And countless ages sit serene,
 Amidst the splendor of thy *brows*.
 She breaks! How sweet her trembling light
 Silvers the fable stole of night?
 Oh! Luna, let thy fairest face
 The mountain's gloomy *grandeur* grace!
 Ride onwards, while from either side
 Thy bright'ning path the clouds divide,
 And pausing full upon his *brow*,
 Suffuse thy lustre o'er his *snow*!
 Gild the dark fleeces curling hung,
 About his breast, his domes among,
 And beam o'er all his rocks below!
 His rocks sublime, whose varied gold
 Has borne on high, for years untold,
 The massy silver of his pond'rous throne,
 And stood unmov'd, and still shall stand,
 Through many a wreck of many a land,
 Marking a thousand scenes to mortal eyes unknown.'

The ideas suggested in the preceding passage are strikingly sublime, but their effect is somewhat diminished by amplification. The author's judgment is, indeed, inferior to his genius. He pursues his thoughts too far, and is too profuse of ornament. The cadence of the verses is, in general, harmonious; and the rhymes, with very few exceptions, correct. Those marked in Italics are used by our best writers, but they are introduced too frequently: 'view' and 'shew' are more exceptionable. Mr. Whalley, surely, need not be informed, that the latter is pronounced 'show,' and we cannot see why it should not always be spelt in that manner.

Reflections on the English common Version of the Scriptures, and on the Necessity of its being revised by Authority. 4to. 1s. White.

The intent of this little performance, which displays evident marks of genius and learning, is sufficiently specified by the title. We entirely concur with the author in his sentiments; and wish he had treated the subject in a more copious manner.

Derwent. An Ode. 6d. Longman.

Some passages in this poem, in which the author recalls past scenes on the banks of the Derwent, where he spent his younger days, and describes the manners and amusements of the old inhabitants, are picturesque and entertaining. In others he expresses himself in a very peculiar style.

'When thy Hyads impetuously pour'd
 A deluge from ev'ry hill,
 The dams by thy torrents devour'd
 The miller aghast in his mill;

Thy rage did but temper the air ;
 Far distant the mildew of health,
 Where guilt vainly decorates care
 Disdaining the gewgaws of wealth.
 Fine houses, fine coaches, fine wives,
 Genealogies bought by the yard !
 Why forfeit the peace of your lives,
 Ye wretches, for such a reward !'

One would be almost apt to suspect that the author derived his inspiration from a different liquor than that which flows from the fountain of Helicon.

Poems and Translations. By the Rev. W. Beloe. 8vo. 5s. ^{iⁿ} Boards. Johnson.

Of this gentleman's translation of Coluthus, which is here reprinted, we gave some account in our sixty second Vol. p. 150. The other poems consist chiefly of elegies, songs, sonnets, and translations from Greek and Latin authors. Among the latter, we have the version of a little Latin poem, written in the manner of Catullus. Its neatness of expression, and novelty of thought towards the conclusion, will please the classical reader. The thought alluded to, however, is inadequately rendered in the translation.

' In the same tomb we'll sink to rest,
 Beyond all human being's blest.'

These lines are entirely destitute of the force and spirit which marks the original.

' Sic nos consociabimur sepulti,
 Et vivis erimus beatiores.'

We have no objection to the other lines; they will serve as a short specimen of the performance, which seldom reaches to excellence, or sinks beneath mediocrity.

' Occidit mea chara Pancharilla,
 Occidit mea lux meumque fidus.
 Et nunc per vacuas domos silentum,
 Comes pallidulis vagatur umbris—
 Sed charam sequar: arboreisque ut alta,
 Sub tellure suos agunt amores,
 Et radicibus implicantur imis,
 Sic nos consociabimur sepulti,
 Et vivis erimus beatiores—

IN ENGLISH.

My Pancharilla breathes no more,
 My light, my star of life, is lost;
 And now upon the Stygian shore,
 With many a pale and airy ghost
 She melancholy fleets along,
 Companion of the silent throng.
 But I will hasten to my love,
 And as the trees, whose roots profound,
 Their sympathetic fibres move,
 In closest union to be bound,

In the same tomb we'll sink to rest,
Beyond all human beings blest.'

The Controversiad; an Epistle to a learned Friend. 8vo. 1s. 6d.
Stalker.

While we possess opinions of our own, we are not conscious of ever attempting to set them up as the standard of rectitude, or depreciating the works of authors in proportion as they differ from us: we give to each their due of praise, and mention, with our reasons, in what they appear to be mistaken. In more than one respect, we differ from the author before us, yet there is so much shrewdness in his manner and his remarks,—there is such a degree of candour, with perhaps one or at most two exceptions in his satire, that we have read his account of the controversy with much pleasure. Indeed, he owns that he is biased on one side; and perhaps every one who has read much that has been published on the disputes, will feel a bias; so that he is most impartial who is best aware of the influence of his prejudices. While authors are pleasant and good humoured, we do not disapprove of controversy.

N O V E L S.

Fatal Follies; or the History of the Countess of Stanmore. 4 Vols.
12mo. 10s. sewed. Robins.

The follies of Lady Stanmore were, indeed, fatal; and we can scarcely regret her misfortunes, when we reflect on their source, an attachment to fashion and splendour, with little regard to the more serious and domestic duties. The other characters of this novel are drawn with an equally faithful pencil; but the colours are more pleasing. In short, without any great novelty of sentiment or character, these volumes are interesting and entertaining. The author is well acquainted with the human heart: he is acquainted too with the several places where his scenes are laid, and with the manners of their inhabitants. Our young ladies may learn, from this novel, something besides an ah! and an oh!—these delightful decorations of a female correspondence.

Retribution. By the Author of the *Gamblers.* 3 Vols. 12mo.
7s. 6d. Robins.

This author's genius is superior to his art, and his knowledge of the human mind more conspicuous than his invention. His story is managed with very little address; and the frequent changes, the reference to the adventures of the other personages of the novel, weaken the feelings, and destroy the interest. Besides, when we look at Grubble, we cannot help recollecting Branston;—when we hear the speeches of Bray we refer to Briggs;—nor can Lady Anne Prescot appear to advantage by the side of the equally dignified, and the more amiable Mrs. Delville; Patty and Cécilia, Mrs. Prescot and Harrel, are also counter-parts. Such were our feelings on reading this novel; yet, on the whole, it possesses considerable merit. The various

scenes in which Prescot appears, are worked up with singular pathos: we feel for the amiable, the tender Patty; and admire as well as pity the generous, the infatuated colonel Prescot.

Agitation; or Memoirs of George Woodford and Lady Emma Melville. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Barker.

This lady, ‘content to dwell in decencies for ever,’ deserves no ‘ill-natured sarcasms.’—Like her former works, this novel, if it raise no admiration, will escape contempt; and, to conclude in her own manner,—may never any novellist hold up worse examples, or inculcate less salutary lessons, than we find in the Memoirs of George Woodford and Lady Emma Melvill!

The Effects of the Passions, or Memoirs of Florincourt. From the French. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Vernor.

There is some novelty, and somewhat interesting, in the adventures of Florincourt, and the fatal end of Julia. The story of Varueil also, though improbable, is varied by numerous and uncommon events, and related in a manner which does credit to the sensibility and the spirit of the author. There is, however, no considerable merit in the whole; and the work can only appear in a very advantageous light, when placed near the miserable trash which we have received under the title of Novels.

The West-Indian; or the Memoirs of Frederick Charlton. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Axtell.

There is too great similarity in this story to the Adventures of Roderick Random, and his Narcissa; yet there is some dexterity in the manner of dishing up the repast before us; and the first morsel is not wholly unpalatable. The author began with mince-pyes, and we invert the feast, by concluding with a fricassée. As he has thought fit to bribe us by a promise of his pyes, we shall conclude our character of the work in the manner which he has prescribed, and ‘wish that the author’s success may be adequate to his merits.’ We hope we shall not forfeit our right to the invitation, when we add, as impartiality directs, that these merits are not very striking or considerable;—that the conclusion is lame and impotent,—and these little volumes require, at last, the addition of a trifling farce, to supply the vacuity of a meagre story.

The Adventures of Jonathan Corncob, Loyal American Refugee,
Written by himself. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

Harkee, Mr. Jonathan Corncob! leave your indecorums, and preserve your genuine humour, unpolluted by improper language, or indecent descriptions. If you do so, we shall receive ou with pleasure, as a relation at least, if not a descendant, yf the facetious Yorick: otherwise we shall consign your future volumes to the oblivion which they will merit.

Phæbe; or Distressed Innocence. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed.
Stalker.

The reader, who can pursue the adventures of Phæbe in this strange

strange and intricate contexture of events, must be capable of much patient attention; and, for those who can employ the necessary time in the enquiry, we anxiously wish a better employment. After much care, and a scrupulous examination, we gave up the cause as hopeless: of course, we cannot decide on the probability of the narrative. Every thing is designed, as Bayes says, to elevate and surprize.

POLITICAL.

Animadversions on the Political Part of the Preface to Bellendenus.
8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

We have already given our opinion on the political nature of this celebrated Preface, and regretted that so much pains should have been bestowed in vain, on a temporary and disputed subject. The animadvertisor, also, displays abilities worthy of a better cause; for the meteors of the day are already sunk in obscurity: in short, both the Preface and the Animadversions, we may style, in the language of our present author, a ‘melancholy perversion of splendid talents.’—In this work there is much severe and poignant reprehensions of the heroes of the Preface, and no bluntness sarcasms on its author. We have seldom seen arrows pointed with a better aim; and we are sorry that they must waste their force in the air. The political and classical antagonists of our present author are beyond their reach.

As the title imports, the chief attack is directed against the politics of the Preface:—the short allusions to the Latin weapons, which were wielded with true classic force, are very successful. We shall transcribe a short passage, as a specimen of our author’s abilities.

‘The editor’s arguments against the commercial treaty are selected, with his usual felicity, from the Greek poets. It has been frequently said that there never existed a religious error, however absurd and impious, that numerous adopters have not attempted to establish, and in their own opinions successfully, on the divine sanction of Scripture. It supposes, however, some consistency even in the wildest zealots, to have recourse for authority, where alone sufficient authority could be found. It remained for the learned Prefacer to extract his *tertium quid* from a mixture, the most heterogeneous that ever entered the imagination;—to prove, by quotations from ancient poetry, the specific evils of modern policy; to shew our treaty with France highly injurious from the testimony of Aristophanes; the insufficiency of the Irish propositions by the evidence of Homer; or the evil tendency of a rupture with Portugal on the weighty attestation of the Orphic verses.—These are resources peculiar to learning. Plain, unlettered men must be satisfied with national history, and the evidence of the times.’

Letters on the Slave Trade. By Thomas Cooper, Esq. Small 8vo.
Supplement to Mr. Cooper’s Letters on the Slave Trade. Small 8vo.

These little tracts are circulated gratis; and though we com-

mend the humanity of the design, we cannot approve of accumulating every shocking fact that is calculated to impress the reader with a belief that treatment of this kind is common. Mrs. Brownrig, and some others of the same infamous description, have cruelly used their apprentices, and, in the same way, it might be proved that every apprentice is treated with unheard-of barbarity. We believe, in a moral view, it would not be allowed to misrepresent facts, whatever benefit may be derived from the misrepresentation. Mr. Cooper, however, collects only from different authors; and, if he misleads the reader, it is by enumerating occasional cruelties in such a manner as to induce him to think they are frequent and common. The description of the means of procuring slaves is undoubtedly correct.

The Supplement consists of detached facts, compiled from different authors, relating to the numbers of slaves in the West India islands, and some parts of the continent, where African slaves are imported: 500,000 either killed in war, or exported as captives, are, our author thinks, annually lost to Africa, yet, from the state of population, and various causes which influence it, Africa might bear that annual loss four times told, without a diminution of the existing stock. The total number which have been imported from Africa, is calculated at fifty millions, at least; and, by the deaths previous to the importation, the loss in war, &c. Africa has lost five times as many in this destructive trade.

Thoughts upon the African Slave Trade. By John Newton. 8vo.
15. Buckland.

Mr. Newton, though at present a minister of the Gospel, was once engaged in the slave-trade as mate, and as captain of a Guinea ship. He gives a very candid, and apparently dispassionate account of the cruelties necessarily attending this infamous species of traffic, without aiming at exaggerations to fill up the measure of horror. We shall select one fact respecting the loss of seamen on the coast, and another to correct the misrepresentations of some authors who have treated of the manners of the Africans.

' How far the several causes I have enumerated, may respectively operate, I cannot say: the fact, however, is sure, that a great number of our seamen perish in the slave trade. Few ships, comparatively, are either blown up, or totally cut off, but some are. Of the rest, I have known some that have lost half their people, and some a larger proportion. I am far from saying, that it is always, or even often, thus; but, I believe, I shall state the matter sufficiently low, if I suppose that, at least, one fifth part of those who go from England to the coast of Africa, in ships which trade for slaves, never return from thence. I dare not depend too much upon my memory, as to the number of ships and men employed in the slave trade more than thirty years ago; nor do I know what has been the state

of

of the trade since ; therefore I shall not attempt to make calculations. But, as I cannot but form some opinion on the subject, I judge it probable, that the collective sum of seamen, who go from all our ports to Africa within the course of a year, (taking Guinea in the extensive sense, from Goree or Gambia, and including the coast of Angola,) cannot be less than eight thousand ; and if, upon an average of ships and seasons, a fifth part of these die, the annual loss is fifteen hundred. I believe those who have taken pains to make more exact enquiries, will deem my supposition to be very moderate.'—

'I have often been gravely told, as a proof that the Africans, however hardly treated, deserve but little compassion, that they are a people so destitute of natural affection, that it is common among them for parents to sell their children, and children their parents. And, I think, a charge of this kind is brought against them by the respectable author of Spectacle de la Nature. But he must have been misinformed. I never heard of one instance of either while I used the coast.'

Much information may be derived from these Thoughts, and we would strongly recommend them to the public attention. They will convince every one, that the farther importation of Africans should be stopped, from every consideration ; and so far only, as we have already observed, it will be probably found expedient for the legislature to proceed at present.

A Letter to Philip Francis, Esq. from the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, &c. With Remarks. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

This Letter is written in consequence of one which appeared lately in the Morning Herald, addressed to Mr. Francis, and subscribed with the names of the members of the committee for managing the impeachment of Mr. Hastings. In that Letter the committee expressed the greatest respect for Mr. Francis, from the opinion they entertained of his public conduct during his residence in the East Indies, and declared a desire of resorting to his assistance in the affair of the impeachment. The author of the present Letter reprobates, with indignation, such a public avowal of their design, after Mr. Francis had been prohibited by the house of commons from any share in conducting the impeachment ; and he draws such a picture of that gentleman's conduct in the East Indies, as seems totally irreconcileable with the character ascribed to him by the committee. The author's remarks are filled with a degree of petulance, but intermixed with strong expostulation.

Minutes of Warren Hastings, and Philip Francis, Esqrs. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

These Minutes contain the substance of the transactions in council at Bengal, relative to the differences between the gentlemen mentioned in the title. Whatever be the motive for their publication, they doubtless justify the conduct of the house of commons, in not permitting Mr. Francis to be a member

member of the committee for managing the impeachment of Mr. Hastings; and indeed, upon the principle of candour, Mr. Francis might rather be satisfied than displeased at the exclusion.

The Answer of Warren Hastings, Esq. to the Articles exhibited by the Commons in Maintenance of their Impeachment against him; 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Stockdale.

This pamphlet is said to contain Mr. Hastings's answer to the different articles of impeachment against him, delivered at the bar of the house of peers, on Wednesday, Nov. 28, 1787. Mr. Hastings replies to each article separately; and concludes with a general exculpation of himself from the charges which have been brought against him.

A Second Letter from Mr. Pigott to the Right Hon. William Pitt. 4to. 4s. 6d. Ridgway.

Mr. Pigott's former letter was noticed in our Review for April, 1787. He now reproaches the minister for his inattention to that epistle; but proceeds to deliver his sentiments in the same strain as before, on other political subjects; and we have not the least doubt with the same success. His former letter was dated from Hieres, in Provence; but the present from Pent, near Geneva.

Defence of the Statute passed in the forty-third Year of Elizabeth, concerning the Employment and Relief of the Poor; with Proposals for enforcing it. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The author of this pamphlet urges many sensible observations, recommending a farther trial of the statute above mentioned, as well as of other subsequent statutes respecting the employment and relief of the poor, with more coercive means of enforcing a due observance of them. It has been repeatedly affirmed by many who have written on the subject, and the fact is unquestionable, that the evils so loudly complained of relative to the poor, might be, in a great measure, if not entirely, remedied, by a proper execution of the laws now existing for that purpose.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Thoughts on the Importance of the Manners of the Great to general Society. Small 8vo. 2s. Cadell.

This very respectable author professes himself 'neither an old man, a clergyman, or a Methodist,' and wishes to rise above the imputation of 'moroseness, self-interest, or enthusiasm.' He points out those errors, for they are scarcely vices, which result in the most serious minds from inattention, and taint the conduct even of the best informed, with a stain little suitable to that purity which should peculiarly distinguish the followers of Christ. The indecorum in the conduct of the great, with respect to the observance of Sunday; the applause which brilliant, rather than religious, or just sentiments, receive in public; with some similar errors, are the subject of his animadversion. On these subjects,

subjects, his style is serious and severe; sometimes pointed and indignant; but, in every instance, as neat as his sentiments are just. On the whole, we have read his exhortation with great pleasure, and earnestly recommend it to those for whom it is intended.—We shall conclude our article with a short specimen.

‘When the general texture of an irregular life is spangled over with some constitutional pleasing qualities; when gaiety, good humour, and a thoughtless profusion of expence throw a lustre round the faultiest characters; it is no wonder that common observers are blinded into admiration: a profuse generosity dazzles them more than all the duties of the Decalogue. But though it may be a very useful quality towards securing the election of a borough, it will contribute but little towards making sure the calling and election to the kingdom of heaven. It is somewhat strange that extravagance should be the great criterion of goodness with those very people who are themselves the victims to this idol; for the prodigal pays no debts if he can help it: and it is notorious, that in one of the wittiest and most popular comedies which this country has ever produced, those very passages which exalt liberality at the expence of justice, were nightly applauded with enthusiastic rapture by those deluded tradesmen, whom, perhaps, that very sentiment helped to keep out of their money.’

A Letter to the Caput of the University of Cambridge on the Rejection of the Grace for Abolishing Subscription. By a Member of the Senate. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

A grace for the removal of subscription to the usual form at the time of taking the degree of bachelor of arts, was presented to the caput in December last, by the rev. Dr. Edwards, and rejected. In this Letter the author expostulates with the caput, in strong terms, on this silent rejection, without their having given a reason for their conduct. His expostulation is warm and manly; but

‘Non nostrum est tantas componere lites.’ We must imitate the silence of the caput, which, in these innovating times, we think, at least, prudent.

The Parental Monitor. By Mrs. Bonhote. 2 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Lane.

These elegant little volumes, the productions of anxious maternal tenderness, are properly taken from the secluded circle, for which they were originally designed, and given to the world. We have looked over them with some care, without finding any thing to reprehend either in the language or the observations. The former is neat and perspicuous, without a laboured refinement: the latter are pointed, useful, and strictly moral. The Monitor consists of select essays, which are rather rules of conduct, artfully connected under the form of general observations; of poetry of various kinds; of fables and adventures. Some of these are the works of other authors; and Mrs. Bonhote’s list is a

very

very carefully selected one. The subjects are so miscellaneous, that we cannot even transcribe the table of contents; and perhaps a short specimen of the neatness of our author's language, and the sound good sense of her precepts, will be of more consequence. We shall select her advice to young ladies on the important subject of marriage, because we have not been able to find any other passage of equal utility, that can be with so little injury separated from the rest of the essay.

' Did young people seriously consider the important change which marriage must necessarily produce in their situation, how much more cautious would it make them in forming their choice of a companion for life? Alas! what avail the graces of the finest figure, the most captivating address, the assemblage of all that is ensnaring, if the heart is depraved, or the conduct imprudent! The gayest associate of the convivial hour may be the dullest, the most unfit companion for the domestic circle; and he, who is never satisfied but in a crowd, or when engaged in a continued round of pleasure, is very unlikely to make a tender and prudent husband. Should sickness or distress draw near, depend upon it he will fly from their approach. If beauty alone excited his passion, it will cease to exist when you are deprived of those attractions on which it was founded. If fortune was his inducement, that will likewise soon lose its value in his sordid mind; and the very person who brought him the wealth for which he sighed, will be considered as the grand obstacle to its enjoyment. Too often is this unpleasant picture to be seen in many discontented families, which a little serious reflection might have prevented being so unfortunately realized. Never be prevailed upon to yield your hearts to any one, however he may shine in the gay circles of the world, if you are convinced that he has no relish for the enjoyments of retired life. The man who likes every house better than his own, will scarcely take the trouble of making home agreeable to others, whilst it is disgusting to himself. It will be the only place in which he will give way to his discontent and ill humour. Such people are for ever strangers to the dear delights of the social state, and all the real comforts of a well regulated family. He that is indiscriminately at home is never at home, and he feels himself a stranger or a visitor amidst his closest connexions.'

Elements of Universal History, for Youth. By J. A. L. Montrou. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Marsh.

This is the Iliad in a nutshell; and the work is too concise to admit of its being, in any great degree, useful. We do not object to the execution, since the narratives which occur are perspicuous, and the few facts which are mentioned, sufficiently correct. The plan is, however, too vast; and no abilities could have filled up so extensive an outline in such a small bulk, as to have given satisfactory information on any particular part.

The

The ancient geography can only be understood, under the guidance of an instructor, assisted by good maps.

The Children's Friend. Translated by the rev. Mark Anthony Meilan, from the French of M. Berquin. 24 Vols. 16mo. 12s. sewed. Bew.

L'Ami des Enfans of M. Berquin, merits every commendation that is due to a work happily calculated for the instruction and entertainment of young minds. It instills the precepts of morality in the most agreeable manner; and while it informs the understanding, it improves the heart in the cultivation of those tender affections which are favourable to virtue. The author of the present translation evinces his own judgment, in endeavouring to extend the usefulness of so valuable a work; but we wish Mr. Meilan had reflected more deliberately, that, as a foreigner, the success of his attempt, in rendering it into English, was an extremely precarious event. His acquaintance with the idioms and manners of this country appears to be as yet too imperfect for such an undertaking. The work is therefore disfigured with numerous improprieties; though some parts of it are executed with a degree of accuracy surpassing what could be expected from any author that laboured under such a disadvantage.

Favourite Tales. Translated from the French. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

These Tales are in the style of Voltaire; and Imirce, we remember, at the time of publication, was attributed to the late King of Prussia. We wish they had remained in their original state, for indecorum and infidelity can never be pleasing. The Tale, in imitation of Sterne, is only a new combination of Sterne's images and situations.

Fairy Tales, selected from the best Authors. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

The only merit of a collection must arise from the judgment with which it is chosen; but what judgment can appear in a compilation, where, to be pleased at all, must be the exercise of fancy alone? We remember, in these Tales, some of the companions of our nursery, when pleasure was cheaply bought by novelty. We then were pleased with them, and our readers must accept of a decision at an age which alone can decide on these subjects.

The Ground-work of the Grammar of the French Language. By Jean Jaques D'Etouville. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Dilly.

M. d'Etouville begins with the verbs, as confessedly the most difficult, and in reality, the most important part of the French language. Though this is a solecism in grammar, we see but one considerable objection to it, which is the necessity of employing pronouns before the learner knows what they are. Our author is more reprehensible in increasing the number of his conjugations to twelve; which embarrass, and add new difficulties

ties to the trouble of learning. In other respects, he seems to be sufficiently accurate; for minute errors, either in the preface, or the conduct of the work, we would not fastidiously point out. In short, whatever may be the other merits of his Grammar, it is not calculated to expedite the progress of the learner.

The Complete System of the French Language. By Nicholas Salmon.
8vo. 5s. 6d. in Boards. Kearsley.

The ‘Footstep’* was so steep, that we despaired of reaching the top of the ladder: the Complete System has, however, proved so instructing, that we do not repent the labour employed in attaining it. Much accurate information on the nature and the genius of the French language, from the best authors, may be obtained from it, though nothing can be farther distant from a grammar, or more unfit, from its extent and form, for the purposes of tuition, except probably, in the hands of the author.

It is a general fault in almost every author of a grammar, that he aims at too much. Even Chambaud’s work, the best elementary French grammar that we have yet seen, is too diffuse. In the rudiments, general rules only should be taught; the exceptions may be best learned, and most securely fixed on the mind, by reading, when a stock of words, the most difficult part of every language, is at the same time procured. This error is not, however, peculiar to the French masters. In the Latin schools, some years are spent in learning general rules and exceptions; but more are required to apply them, and point out the connection between Lilly or Ruddiman, and Cicero or Cæsar.

The Pronunciation and Orthography of the French Language rendered perfectly Easy. By John Murdoch. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Forster.

It is with the judgment of French masters as with their watches,

— — — — — ‘None

Go just alike, yet each believes his own.’
We see, however, no very peculiar merit in this work, or any reason to suppose that the best rules will supersede the necessity of a master.

A vocabulary of words which resemble each other in sound, a collection of exercises, and some pieces of prose and verse, are subjoined, with remarks on French versification.

Midsummer Holydays. Written for the Improvement and Entertainment of young Folk. 12mo. 1s. half-bound. Marshall.

Propriety of behaviour, and a delicacy of manners, may be properly learned from this little story: on the whole, we greatly approve of it. The language is also, in general, neat and correct; yet the following paragraph is highly reprehensible for its inelegance.

* See our account of the Footstep in our last Vol. p. 359.

‘But

‘ But the pleasure of having done one’s duty, answered one’s own expectations, and those of one’s friends, and being able to give oneself a proof of one’s industry by something one has worked, or written, or learned, makes a person brisk and lively, and ready for any innocent diversion ; though I think, as one grows older, one takes less pleasure in those diversions that do not turn to something useful.’

The author does not often offend in this way ; but we may observe, that the sentences are too long for the younger readers.

The Contrast. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Cadell.

This narrative exhibits the opposite consequences of good and evil habits, in the lowest ranks of rural life. It is avowedly written for the benefit of servants, and the best proficients in Sunday schools. It is evidently well calculated for the purpose, and, as such, deserves our recommendation.

A short Account of the late Dr. John Parsons, Professor of Anatomy at Oxford ; Dr. Richard Huck Saunders, of London ; Dr. Charles Collignon, Professor of Anatomy at Cambridge ; and Sir Alexander Dick, of Bestonfield. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

This biographical account is extracted from the tenth volume of the Edinburgh Medical Commentaries, and bears the appearance of authenticity.

Political Miscellanies. Part I. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Ridgway.

Among these miscellanies we meet with several antiministerial election squibs, thrown out among the populace during the last contest for Westminster ; with other occasional productions of the same kind, which appeared within these few years. The pieces most distinguished for humour, however, are the ‘ Probationary Ode extraordinary, by the rev. W. Mason, M. A.’ and ‘ the Statesman, an eclogue.’

Memoirs of Mr. Henry Maser de la Tude. Written by himself. Translated from the French. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

This gentleman, for a youthful frolic and a jest against the marchioness de Pompadour, was committed to the Bastile, and afterwards to the castle of Vincennes. He made his escape from both ; but being retaken, was again committed prisoner, and suffered, in the whole, a confinement of thirty-five years. The extraordinary manner in which he and his companion effected their escape from the Bastile in particular, affords such an example of ingenious contrivance, unremitting perseverance, and heroic resolution, as probably never was surpassed by any preceding adventurer.—Happy Englishmen ! read this narrative, and hug to your glowing bosoms your Great Charter, with its offspring, the Habeas Corpus act. Amidst all your political contests, regard, with a watchful jealousy, the slightest infringement on those glorious bulwarks of freedom.

Memoirs

Memoirs of Henry Maser de Latude. Written by himself. 12mo.
3s. Robson and Clarke.

The chief circumstance in which this translation differs from the preceding, is, that it is printed in a larger letter.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

We are informed by the translator of the Preface to *Bellen-denus*, that the translation was begun and completed without the knowledge or the communication of the author. We readily publish this declaration, in compliance with his request, especially as our opinion seems to have been pretty generally followed. We need not apologise to the translator for a mistake so favourable to his abilities.

In our review of Mr. Pearson's Sermon, we did not allude to any absolute mistakes, but to some points which had been controverted, and which we wished to have had a better opportunity of discussing, than the review of a sermon would allow. The whole performance was so much to his credit, that we should have thought him an author worthy of our particular regard, and consequently should have pointed out any opinion which we had thought ill-founded, or any position which had appeared reprehensible.

The Animadversion on the Accentuation of *Aeneas*, in the Scripture Lexicon, arises from our own mistake. The person meant was not the *Aeneas* of Homer; but the *Aeneas* mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles.

We would, with pleasure, oblige our correspondent Rusticola with some information relating to the new Nomenclatura Chymica, in our foreign department, though we have no reason to suppose that the terms will be generally adopted in this country. But his request is now superseded by a translation of the French work; and it must, of course, be examined as an English publication. We purpose also, in our account of it, to consider the objections and the answers which have been published on the continent. Our correspondent is misinformed, when he asserts that the names of the three alkalies, in the new Pharmacopeia, are to be the same as in the new Nomenclature. We have some reason to suppose that they will be KALI, NATRON, and AMMONIAE. It has not, we find, escaped this intelligent chemist, that by the royal authority not only the Formulæ, but the language of that Pharmacopeia, is ordered to be rigorously observed.

